TSTIDULE RAMMAR IN STEPS

English grammar presented, explained and practised in context by David Bolton and Noel Goodey



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The present simple: She works

Paul Hart and Sarah Ford live in the same block of flats in Avonmouth. Paul's a postman. He gets up at 5.30 a.m. and goes to work at 6. He usually catches the bus. Sarah lives in the next flat. She's a nurse. She works nights. She gets home from work at 6 a.m., at the same time as Paul leaves for work! They meet on the stairs and say hello, but that's all. He sometimes tries to arrange a date with her, but he doesn't find it easy. And they don't see each other at weekends because Sarah works most weekends. Nurses don't have an easy life. But she says she likes nursing and she doesn't want to change her job. 'I enjoy my job, but I don't have a very good social life. Paul and I don't spend any time together. We often try to arrange a date, but we're never free at the same time.'

Step 1

Uses of the present simple

We use the present simple to talk about:

- habits or regular activities and situations. Paul **gets up** at 5.30 a.m. They **meet** on the stairs. Paul and Sarah **live** in Avonmouth.
- facts and attitudes that are generally or always true. *Nurses don't have an easy life.* Sarah likes nursing.
- We don't use the present simple to talk about things that are in progress now, that are temporary. We don't say: Look! It rains. We have to use the present continuous: *Look! It's raining.*

(For the present continuous, see Unit 2. For the present simple used with a future meaning, see Unit 4 Step 2.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which sentences describe a regular activity or an attitude?

- 1 Paul has a shower every morning. 2 He went to bed late last night.
- 3 Sarah's going to Spain next summer. 4 She loves the sun.

Step 2

The present simple: affirmative/positive forms

To work I work You work He/she/it works We work You work They work

• In the affirmative, the present simple has the same form as the infinitive in all persons except the 3rd person singular (*he, it, Paul, the flat*, etc.). We add -*s* in the 3rd person singular.

Paul gets up at 5.30 a.m. Sarah likes nursing.

• With verbs that end in -o, -ch, -sh, -ss (go, catch, watch, wash, kiss, etc.), we add -es and not just -s in the 3rd person singular.

Paul goes to work at 6. He usually catches the bus.

• With some verbs that end in -y (*cry*, *fly*, *hurry*, *try*, etc.) the -y changes to -*ies* in the 3rd person singular.

Paul often tries to arrange a date with her.

• But with verbs with a vowel before -y (buy, play, say, etc.) we simply add -s. But she says she likes nursing.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences, using the present simple.

- 1 Paul (play) football. 2 Sarah (study) Spanish in her spare time.
- 3 Paul sometimes (miss) the bus to work. 4 Sarah (do) her shopping on Thursdays.

Step 3

The present simple: negative and question forms

Negative	Questions
I don't work	Do I work?
You don't work	Do you work?
He/she/it doesn't work	Does he/she/it work?
We don't work	Do we work?
You don't work	Do you work?
They don't work	Do they work?

• To form the negative we use don't (do not) for all persons except the 3rd person singular.

They **don't see** each other at weekends. I **don't have** a very good social life. Paul and I **don't spend** much time together.

• In the 3rd person singular we use *doesn't (does not)*. We don't add -s to the verb that follows *doesn't*.

She **doesn't want** to change her job. (NOT She doesn't wants) He **doesn't find** it easy. (NOT He doesn't finds it easy.)

• To form questions we use do for all persons except the 3rd person singular.

	Do	+	subject +	infinitive without to
	Do		you	know any nurses?
	Do		Paul and Sarah	live together?
When	do		they	see each other?

• In the 3rd person singular we form the question with does.

	Does	Paul	work at weekends?
When	does	Sarah	get home from work?
	Does	she	like nursing?

Note the short answers.

Does Sarah work nights? Yes, she does.

Does Paul work nights? No, he doesn't.

Do they live in the same block of flats? Yes, they do.

Do they spend much time together? No, they don't.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

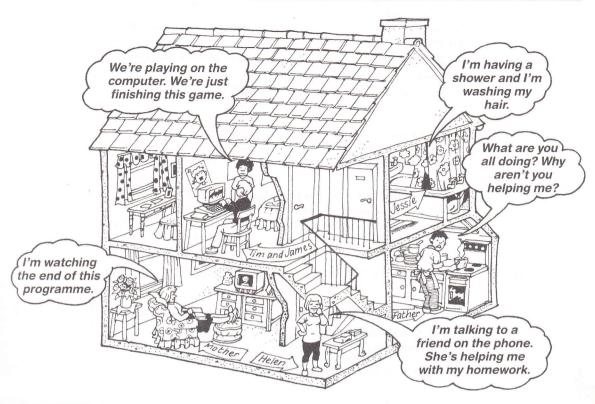
Complete the sentences, using the present simple.

- 1 Where (live) Paul? 2 Paul (not work) at weekends.
- 3 Sarah (not want) to change her job. 4 (have) nurses a good social life?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 Paul has a shower every morning. She loves the sun.
- 2 1 Paul plays football. 2 Sarah studies Spanish in her spare time. 3 Paul sometimes misses the bus to work. 4 Sarah does her shopping on Thursdays.
- 3 1 Where does Paul live? 2 Paul doesn't work at weekends. 3 Sarah doesn't want to change her job. 4 Do nurses have a good social life?

The present continuous: It's raining



Step 1

The present continuous for actions in progress

• We use the present continuous to talk about something that's in progress now, at this moment.

Dad's making supper. His wife isn't helping him. She's watching television. The children aren't helping him either.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Are these things happening now in the situation above? Answer Yes or No.

1 They're having supper. 2 Tim's playing a computer game.

3 Helen's doing her homework. 4 Jessie's going out.

Step 2 Forms of the present continuous

• We form the present continuous with the present of be + the -ing form of the verb. Note: The negative has two possible forms.

Affirmative

I'm (I am) working You're (You are) working He's (He is) working She's (She is) working It's (It is) working We're (We are) working You're (You are) working They're (They are) working

Negative

I'm not working You aren't/You're not working He isn't/He's not working She isn't/She's not working It isn't/It's not working We aren't/We're not working You aren't/You're not working They aren't/They're not working

Ouestions

Am I working? Are you working?

Is he/she/it working?
Are we working?

Are you working? Are they working?

Short answers

Yes, I am. OR No, I'm not.

Yes, you are. OR No, you aren't/you're not. Yes, he is. OR No, he's not/he isn't.

Yes, we are. OR No, we're not/we aren't. Yes, we are. OR No, we're not/we aren't.

Yes, they are. OR No, they're not/they aren't.

• Note the spelling changes before -ing.

Words ending in: $\begin{array}{ccc} e & \text{have} & \text{having} \\ m & \text{swim} & \text{swimming} \\ n & \text{run} & \text{running} \end{array}$

p stop stopping
t get getting

(See also Appendix 3.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put the verb into the present continuous.

- 1 Dad (make) supper. 2 Jessie (help) her father? No, she ...
- 3 She (get) ready to go out. 4 The boys (not help) their father.

Step 3

Verbs not used in the present continuous

Dad: Tim, I know you're busy, but I want some help.

Tim: But Dad, I'm doing something important.

Dad: Important? What do you mean? I don't believe you!

• Some verbs (most of them verbs of thinking and feeling) are almost never used in the present continuous. The most common are: agree, be, believe, belong, care, forget, hate, hear, know, like, love, mean, mind, notice, own, remember, seem, suppose, understand, want, wish. (See also Unit 3, Step 3.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Which sentences are incorrect?

- 1 James is being in his bedroom at the moment. 2 He's playing a computer game.
- 3 He's loving computer games. 4 His father's hating computer games.
- 5 He's thinking they're a waste of money. 6 James isn't agreeing.

Step 4

Other uses of the present continuous

It's 8.30 p.m. Jessie's doing her maths homework. This year she's studying maths, physics and economics. She's going out with a boy in her class called Carl. At the moment they're spending a lot of time together. Jessie's Dad doesn't think she's doing enough school work. He's also worried about Tim. Tim's always playing games on his computer.

Dad: You're always wasting your time. Why don't you do something

Tim: Oh, you're always saying that, Dad. You're always complaining.

• We often use the present continuous to talk about a temporary activity or situation. It may not be in progress at the moment of speaking.

This year she's studying maths, physics and economics.

Carl and Jessie are going out together.

Note: The only thing that is happening now (at 8.30) is that Jessie is doing her maths homework. The other things are not happening at this moment.

• We sometimes use the present continuous with *always* to talk about things that happen frequently and are irritating.

Tim's always playing games on his computer.

You're always complaining.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

In these sentences, are we talking about what is happening at this moment (A), or about a temporary situation which may not be happening now (B)? Write A or B.

- 1 Carl's also studying maths, physics and economics.
- 2 Jessie's sitting at her desk in her bedroom.
- 3 She's waiting for Carl to phone.
- 4 She's finding physics quite difficult.

Write sentences using always and the present continuous.

- 5 You (go) out in the evening!
- 6 She (use) the phone!

Step 5

The present continuous with future meaning

Dad: What are you doing tonight, Jessie?

Jessie: I'm going out. I'm meeting Carl and we're going to a club.

• We often use the present continuous to talk about arrangements we've made for the future. (See also Unit 4.)

I'm going out. I'm meeting Carl.

(These are her arrangements for the future. She isn't going out at the moment.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Complete the conversation.

Dad: Where you (1 meet) Carl tonight? And what time you (2 come) home? Jessie: We (3 meet) at the town hall. I don't know what time I (4 come) home, but not late.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

1 1 No. 2 Yes. 3 No. 4 No.

2 1 Dad's making supper. 2 Is Jessie helping her father? No, she isn't/No, she's not. 3 She's getting ready to go out. 4 The boys aren't helping their father.

3 1, 3, 4, 5, 6

4 1B 2A 3A 4B 5 You're always going out in the evening. 6 She's always using the phone.

5 1 are you meeting 2 are you coming 3 We're meeting 4 I'm coming

3

The present continuous: He's smoking OR the present simple: He smokes?

Liz Rix is working for a year on a Greenpeace ship in the Mediterranean. They're checking pollution levels. Liz is writing a letter to her mother. '... I'm writing this letter in my cabin. The sea's quite rough at the moment and I'm finding it difficult to write! I usually get about two hours' free time a day, and I often write letters or read a book (or I sometimes don't do anything at all - I just sleep!). I'm reading a book about the history of Greenpeace at the moment. Greenpeace workers come from all over the world, but, fortunately, everybody on this ship speaks English ... '

Step 1

Things happening now or things happening repeatedly?

• We use the present continuous to talk about something that's in progress at the moment of speaking.

I'm writing this letter in my cabin. I'm finding it difficult to write.

• We also use the present continuous to talk about a present activity or situation that may not be in progress at the moment of speaking.

I'm reading a book about Greenpeace at the moment. (NOT I read a book) (Liz hasn't finished her book; she's still reading it, but not at this moment. At this moment she's writing her letter.)

• We use the present simple to talk about repeated actions and regular situations. We often use words like *always*, *often*, *usually*, *sometimes*, *never* with the present simple. (For *always* with the present continuous, see Unit 2, Step 4.)

I usually **get** two hours' free time a day. (NOT I'm getting)

I often **write** letters or read. I sometimes **don't do** anything at all.

We also use it to talk about a situation or a general fact.
 Everybody on the ship speaks English. (NOT is speaking)
 Greenpeace workers come from all over the world.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Choose the correct verb form.

- 1 Liz (writes/is writing) a letter.
- 2 In her free time she (reads/is reading) a lot.
- 3 Greenpeace workers (come/are coming) from all over the world.

Step 2

Temporary situations or more permanent situations?

'... At the moment, I'm working with Thor Svensen, a Norwegian marine biologist. We're taking water samples and analysing them. Thor works at Oslo University, but he's working for Greenpeace for a year ...'

We use the present continuous to talk about temporary actions or situations.
 At the moment, I'm working with Thor Svensen.
 (Liz will probably have a different job on the ship soon.)

• We use the present simple to talk about more permanent situations. Compare: *Thor* **works** at Oslo University. (present simple) (That's his permanent job.) *He's* **working** for *Greenpeace* for a year. (present continuous) (This is a temporary job, for only a year.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer the questions.

- 1 What's Thor's permanent job? He ... at Oslo University.
- 2 What's Liz's present job on the ship? She ... Thor Svensen.

Step 3

Verbs not used in the continuous form

'... I think this is the best job I've ever had. I want to do it for another year. I like the people on the ship and I know we're doing a useful job. I love life at sea. I'm looking really healthy. The ship has very little fresh water and I'm being extravagant at the moment - washing three times a day! I'd like a shower, but the ship doesn't have showers. But I'm having a great time. I'll finish my letter now because I don't feel very well. The ship's rolling a lot. In fact, I'm feeling a bit sick. I'm thinking of you. Love, Liz.'

• Some verbs describe a state (a situation that stays the same) and not an action. We don't normally use these verbs in the continuous form: *believe, belong, contain, exist, forget, hate, hear, know, like, love, mean, need, own, prefer, realise, remember, seem, suppose, understand, want.*

I want to stay for another year. (NOT I'm wanting)

I like the people. (NOT I'm liking the people.)

I **know** we're doing a useful job. (NOT I'm knowing)

• Some verbs (*think*, *have*, *be*, *see*, *smell*, *taste*) can describe a state or an action. When the verb is an action we can use the continuous form.

I think this is a great job. (I think = I believe = a state)

I'm thinking of you. (Thoughts of you are going through my mind. = an action)

The ship doesn't have showers. (= a state. NOT isn't having)

I'm having a great time. (= an action. I'm doing a lot of great things.)

I'm extravagant. (= a state, describing the person's character.)

I'm being extravagant. (= an action. I'm doing an extravagant thing.)

• The verbs *look* (= someone's appearance), *feel* (= sensations), *hurt* can be used in the simple or the continuous form. The meaning is the same.

I'm looking really healthy. (OR I **look** really healthy.)

I don't feel well at the moment. (OR I'm not feeling well.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Liz (know) she's doing a useful job.
- 2 The ship (not have) a lot of fresh water.
- 3 Liz (feel) a bit sick at the moment.

The present continuous and the present simple with future meaning

'What are you doing for your birthday, Jake?'
'I'm having a party on a boat on the Thames. About fifty people are coming. My father, who lives in Germany, is coming over specially for the party. The boat company's providing the food, and everybody's bringing their own drink. I'm not having a disco. I prefer live music, so we're having a reggae band on the boat.'

Step 1

The present continuous for arrangements for the future

• We use the present continuous to talk about things that we've already arranged to do in the future. We don't use the present simple here.

What are you doing for your birthday? (NOT What do you do for your birthday?) I'm having a party on a boat on the Thames. (NOT I have)
I'm not having a disco. (NOT I don't have a disco.)

• It's possible to use *be going to* here. We could say:

What are you going to do for your birthday?

I'm going to have a party on a boat on the Thames.

BUT be going to suggests an intention more than an arrangement.

(For the use of be going to see Unit 15.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Look at the text. Complete the questions.

- 1 How many ...? About fifty. 2 Who ...? The boat company.
- 3 ... you ...? No, I prefer live music.

Step 2

The present simple for programmes and timetables

This is the timetable for Jake's party:

'The boat leaves Henley at 8 p.m. Then we go down river to Sonning. We stop there for an hour. Then, at 10.30, the boat turns round and comes back to Henley. We get back at about midnight.'

• We often use the present simple when we talk about a programme of future events or a timetable. The time is often given.

The boat leaves at 8 p.m. We get back to Henley at about midnight.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the questions.

- 1 What time ... the boat ... Henley? About eight o'clock.
- 2 What time ... it ... to Sonning? At 9.30. 3 When ... they ... to Henley? At about 12.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 How many people are coming? 2 Who's providing the food? 3 Are you having a disco?
- 2 1 What time does the boat leave Henley? 2 What time does it get to Sonning? 3 When do they get (back) to Henley?

The past simple: He was/he arrived

Ruben Kleinsteuber (62) from Cleveland, Ohio, was on a Mediterranean cruise. His wife wasn't with him. She was back home in the States. His children weren't with him either. They were too old to go on holiday with their father and they weren't interested in Mediterranean cruises.

Step 1

Past simple of the verb be

- We use the past simple of the verb to be to talk about a past situation.
 Ruben was on a Mediterranean cruise.
 His children weren't with him.
- We form the affirmative with was or were.

I was we were you were you were he/she/it was they were

His wife **was** back home in the States.

His two children were too old to go on holiday with him.

- We form the negative with wasn't (was not) or weren't (were not).
 His wife wasn't with him.
 His children weren't interested in Mediterranean cruises.
- We form questions and short answers like this:
 Was he on his own? Yes, he was.
 Were his children with him? No, they weren't.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete these questions and answers, using was/wasn't, were/weren't.

- 1 ... Ruben on a Caribbean cruise? No, ...
- 2 Where ... he from? He ... from Cleveland, Ohio.
- 3 ... his two children with him? No, ...

Step 2

Past simple of regular and irregular verbs

Last Monday Mr Kleinsteuber's ship arrived in Mallorca. He decided to visit the town of Palma. But he didn't want to go sight-seeing with the other passengers. They always visited churches and museums. He didn't like looking at old churches. So he stopped at a bar and then went to a restaurant. There he ate a large paella and drank several glasses of wine. When he looked at his watch, he saw that it was already 3.55 p.m. He didn't have much time. He only had five minutes! He ran back to the port and got there at 4.02 p.m. His ship was already three metres from the quay. He tried to jump aboard, but he didn't reach the ship. He fell into the water below. 'Why did you do that?' a man on the quay said. 'That wasn't your ship. Your ship's over there!'
That evening the other passengers asked him, 'Why didn't you come with us to the cathedral this afternoon? Where did you go?' Mr Kleinsteuber replied, 'Oh, I just went for a swim.'

 We use the past simple of regular and irregular verbs to talk about something that happened and finished in the past, a completed action. We usually say or know when the action happened. The moment in the past is clearly defined.

Last Monday Ruben's ship arrived in Mallorca.

He got there at 4.02 p.m.

- Often we don't need to say when something happened. It is understood. He went to a restaurant instead. (We know that this happened in the past when he was in Palma.)
- We also use the past simple to describe:

something that happened regularly or continually in the past.

They always visited churches and museums.

a situation that existed in the past over a period of time, not just at one fixed moment, He didn't like looking at old churches.

Which sentences refer to the past?

- 1 Ruben goes on a cruise every year.
- 2 Last year he went on a Caribbean cruise.
- 3 He enjoyed it.
- 4 His wife doesn't like cruises.

Step 3 | Forms of the past simple

• We form the past simple of most regular verbs by adding -ed to the infinitive. It is the same for all persons.

look He looked

visit They visited

Note the spelling changes:

like liked

tried try

stop stopped (See also Appendix 3.)

• The *-ed* ending can be pronounced in three different ways:

[id] after the sounds [d] and [t]

decid**ed** visited

[t] after unvoiced sounds (except [t])

looked ask**ed**

[d] after voiced sounds (except [d])

arriv**ed** tried

• Many common verbs are irregular. We don't form the past simple with -ed. (A full table of irregular verbs is on page 317.)

He **went** to a restaurant. (irregular verb go)

There he **ate** a large paella. (irregular verb eat)

He **drank** a lot of wine. (irregular verb drink)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

What is the past simple of these verbs, and how do you pronounce the final -ed? 1 wait 2 stop 3 move 4 want 5 watch 6 reply

What is the past simple form of these verbs?

7 get 8 come 9 have 10 say

Step 4 The past simple: negative

• We form the negative of the past simple with didn't (did not) + the infinitive without to.

Affirmative Negative

He liked He didn't like old churches. (NOT didn't liked) He reached He didn't reach the ship. (NOT didn't reached) He had He didn't have much time. (NOT didn't had) He went He didn't go with the others. (NOT didn't went)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Make these sentences negative.

- 1 Ruben's family came on the cruise with him.
- 2 Ruben liked sight-seeing.
- 3 The other passengers went to the restaurant.
- 4 Ruben missed his boat.

Step 5

The past simple: questions and short answers

• We form questions in the past simple with did or didn't + the infinitive without to. We form short answers with did or didn't.

Did Ruben go to the cathedral? No, he didn't.

(NOT Did Ruben went to the cathedral?)

Did he **fall** into the water? Yes, he did.

Where did you go? Why did you do that? Why didn't you come with us?

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

What questions give these answers?

- 1 What ...? He ate a large paella.
- 2 How much ...? He drank several glasses of wine.
- 3 When ...? He left the restaurant at 3.55 p.m.
- 4 What time ...? He got to the port at 4.02 p.m.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

- 1 1 Was No, he wasn't. 2 was was 3 Were No, they weren't.
- 2 2,3
- 3 1 waited [id] 2 stopped [t] 3 moved [d] 4 wanted [id] 5 watched [t] 6 replied [d] 7 got 8 came 9 had 10 said
- 4 1 Ruben's family didn't come on the cruise with him. 2 Ruben didn't like sight-seeing. 3 The other passengers didn't go to the restaurant. 4 Ruben didn't miss his boat.
- 5 1 What did he eat? 2 How much did he drink? 3 When did he leave the restaurant? 4 What time did he get to the port?

The past continuous: He was working

A detective is interviewing Mrs Jane Garfield about a bank robbery.

Detective: What were you doing at 10.30, at the time of the

robbery?

Mrs Garfield: I was walking along King Street. Detective: Were you going to the bank?

Mrs Garfield: No, I wasn't. I was going to the post office. There were a

lot of other people in the street. They were just doing

their shopping, quite normally. What were the robbers wearing?

Mrs Garfield: They were both wearing jeans and dark sweaters.

Step 1

Use of the past continuous

Detective:

• We use the past continuous to talk about something that started before a certain time in the past and was still in progress at that time.

At 10.30 I was walking along King Street. I was going to the post office.

• We often use the past continuous to describe a situation, to give the background to a scene that happened in the past.

What were they wearing? They were wearing jeans. People were just doing their shopping, quite normally.

- We don't use the past continuous with verbs not normally used in the continuous form. (know, want, etc. See Unit 3, Step 3.)
- We don't normally use the past continuous to talk about a repeated action in the past. (See *used to*, Unit 34.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which two actions were in progress near the bank at 10.30?

Step 2 Forms of the past continuous

• We form the past continuous with was/were + the ing form of the verb.

Affirma	tive	Negative		Questions
I	was working	I	wasn't working	Was I working?
You	were working	You	weren't working	Were you working?
Не	was working	He	wasn't working	Was he working?
She	was working	She	wasn't working	Was she working?
It	was working	It	wasn't working	Was it working?
We	were working	We	weren't working	Were we working?
You	were working	You	weren't working	Were you working?
They	were working	They	weren't working	Were they working?

• Note the short answers.

Were you working? Yes, I was./No, I wasn't.

Were they working? Yes, they were./No, they weren't.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete these sentences.

- 1 At 10.30 Mrs Garfield/not go/to the bank.
- 2 Where/she/go? 3 She/go/to the post office.

Detective: What were you doing when you saw them?

Mrs Garfield: I was standing outside the post office. I was looking in my bag for my letters when I heard a shout. Then I saw them

run out of the bank.

Detective: And what did you do when you saw them?

Mrs Garfield: I just stopped. I didn't try to do anything, because one of

them was carrying a gun. They ran past me and jumped into a car that was waiting near the bus-stop. People were shouting and screaming. The manager rushed out of the bank and ran towards the car, but it was too late. He

couldn't stop them.

• The past continuous and the past simple don't mean the same. We use the past continuous to talk about an action or a situation that was in progress. We use the past simple to talk about a completed action.

People were shouting and screaming. (past continuous)

(That was the situation before and after the robbers ran past Mrs Garfield.)

They **ran** past me and **jumped** into a car. (past simple)

(Two completed actions that started and finished while she was watching.)

• We often use the past continuous and the past simple in the same sentence. The action in the past simple is short and usually unexpected. It interrupts the 'longer' action in the past continuous.

What were you doing when you saw them?

I was standing outside the post office when I saw them.

I was looking in my bag for my letters when I heard a shout.

They **jumped** into a car that **was waiting** near the bus-stop.

- Note the difference:
- a) Past continuous + past simple

What were you doing when you saw them?

I was standing outside the post office when I saw them.

b) Past simple + past simple

What did you do when you saw them? When I saw them I stopped.

In a) she saw them when she was 'in the middle of' standing outside the post office. (One action 'inside' another.)

In b) she saw them and then, after that, she stopped. (Two separate actions.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences with the past continuous or the past simple.

- 1 I (walk) past the bank when the door suddenly (open).
- 2 While I (watch) they (throw) a bag of money into the car.
- 3 As they (drive) away, the manager (run) out of the bank.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Mrs Garfield was walking along King Street. 2 People were doing their shopping.
- 1, 2 AND 3 2 1 At 10.30 Mrs Garfield wasn't going to the
- bank. 2 Where was she going? 3 She was going to the post office.
- 3 1 was walking opened 2 was watching threw 3 were driving ran

The present perfect: *I've lost my job*

Mick: You look miserable. What's the matter? Have you lost your job?

Dave: No, I haven't.

Mick: Well, what's happened?

Dave: I've cut my finger.

Mick: You've cut your finger! Is that all?

Dave: It's serious. I can't play the guitar. Our band's playing at a big concert

tomorrow night. And they've asked Rick to play instead of me.

Step 1

The present perfect: the past and the present connected

• The present perfect connects the past and the present. It refers to a past action, but we're more interested in the present effects or results of the action.

I've cut my finger. (Dave cut his finger in the past, but it hurts now.)

• We often use the present perfect to give people some new information or (in the question form) to ask for information.

What's the matter? **Have** you **lost** your job?

(Mick's first question shows that he's interested in the situation now. In his second question he asks for information that will explain the present situation.)

They've asked Rick to play instead of me.

(It doesn't matter when the band asked Rick. Dave is only interested in the present result – he can't play with the band.)

HECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer the questions.

- 1 Is Dave miserable because of his job? No, he hasn't ... job.
- 2 What's the problem with his finger? He ... it.
- 3 Can he play at the concert? No, they ... Rick instead.

Step 2

The forms of the present perfect

• We form the present perfect with *have/has* + the past participle.

Affirmative Negative Question I've (have) started I haven't started Have I started? You've started You haven't started Have you started? He/she's (has) started He/she hasn't started Has he/she started? We've started We haven't started Have we started? They've started They haven't started Have they started?

• Note the short answers: Have you started? Yes, I have./No, I haven't. Has the film started? Yes, it has./No, it hasn't.

ECK QUESTIONS 2

Which sentences have a verb in the present perfect?

- 1 Dave's miserable. 2 Has he lost his job?
- 3 He's cut his finger. 4 His band's playing tomorrow.

The present perfect with just, yet, ever, etc.

Lucy wants a job. She started looking for work two months ago. She's looked in the newspaper every day. She's visited the job centre in town every week. But she hasn't found anything so far.

Step 1

The present perfect: past time up to now

• The present perfect connects the past and the present. We use it to talk about what has happened (or hasn't happened) in the period up to the present.

She's (has) looked in the newspaper every day.

(Lucy has done this during the last two months and today too.) *But she hasn't found anything so far.(so far* = up to now)

(She hasn't found a job in the two months up to today.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

1 Ask Lucy: What/you/do/so far? 2, 3 Give her answers.

Step 2

The present perfect with already, yet and just

Dee, a friend, has just met Lucy in town.

Dee: Hi, Lucy. How are you? Have you found a job yet?

Lucy: No, not yet. I've written to four companies so far, but I haven't had any replies yet.

Dee: I've just seen an advert in the newsagent's. They're looking for a shop assistant.

Lucy: I know. I've already phoned them. They've already found someone.

• We use *already* with the present perfect to emphasise that the action has happened before the moment of speaking.

We normally use it only in affirmative sentences and questions.

We usually put it between *have*, *has*, etc. and the main verb.

I've already phoned them.

(Lucy emphasises that she's phoned them before now.)

• We use *yet* with the present perfect to say that something has not happened up to now, but we expect it to happen some time in the future. We use it only in questions and negative sentences. We put it at the end of the sentence.

Have you found a job yet? I haven't had any replies yet. (Lucy expects to have some replies in the future.)

• We often use *just* (= a very short time ago) with the present perfect.

We put it between *have*, *has*, etc. and the main verb.

Dee has **just** met Lucy in town. (= a few moments ago)

I've just seen an advert in the newsagent's.

Note: American English. Americans often use *just, already, yet* with the simple past: Dee just met Lucy in town. I already phoned them. Did you find a job yet? (See Appendix 1.)

Answer the questions.

- 1 Has Lucy found a job? No, she ... one ...
- 2 Why doesn't Lucy contact the newsagent's? She's ... them.
- 3 How does Dee know about the job at the newsagent's? She ...

Step 3

The present perfect with ever, never, before

The manager of the local newspaper is interviewing Lucy for a job.

Manager: Have you always lived in Billingham?

Lucy: Yes, I've lived here all my life. I know the town very well.

Manager: Where have I seen you before? I'm sure I've seen you before

somewhere.

Lucy: Probably in the Red Lion in King Street. I've often worked

behind the bar there.

Manager: Ah, yes. I remember now. Er ... Have you ever worked on a

newspaper?

Lucy: No. I've done a few part-time jobs so far, but I've never

worked on a newspaper.

Manager: Have you ever worked in an office?

Lucy: No. I've had jobs in shops and restaurants, but I've never

worked in an office before.

Manager: Have you travelled much? Have you ever lived abroad?

Lucy: Well, I've been abroad on holiday, but I've never lived

abroad.

• We often use *ever* with the present perfect to ask if something has happened at any time up to the present. We normally use it only in questions.

Have you ever worked on a newspaper?

• We use *never* with the present perfect to say that something hasn't happened at any time up to the present.

We put ever and never between have, has, etc. and the main verb.

I've **never** lived abroad.

• We often use *before* (= before now) with the present perfect. We usually put it at the end of the sentence.

I've seen you before. Where have I seen you before?

Note: We sometimes use *never* and *before* in the same sentence.

I've never worked in an office before.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Has Lucy worked in an office?

- 1 Add *ever* to this question.
- 2 Add before to the same question.
- 3 Answer the question using *never*. No, she ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 What have you done so far? 2 I've looked in the newspaper every day. 3 I've visited the job centre every week.
- 2 1 No, she hasn't found one yet. 2 She's already phoned them. 3 She's just seen the advert.
- 3 1 Has Lucy ever worked in an office? 2 Has Lucy worked in an office before? 3 No, she's (has) never worked in an office.

The present perfect: other uses

Sally Hardwick's an American anthropologist from Los Angeles. She's been all over the world. She's been to Africa, she's been to South America and she's been to India. Now she's gone to Australia. She's gone to live with a group of Australian aboriginal people.

Step 1

She's gone to OR She's been to?

- Gone to and been to don't mean the same.
 - A She's gone to Australia. B She's been to Africa.
 - (A Sally isn't in LA now. She's in, or on the way to, Australia.)
 - (B She isn't in Africa now, but she went there in the past.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which questions (Where's Sally gone? Where's Sally been?) give these answers?

1 To South America and India. 2 To Australia.

Step 2

Words and phrases often used with the present perfect

Sally's boyfriend has only seen her for two months this year. She's written to him once this month. She's tried to phone him four times this week, but he hasn't answered. She's tried to phone him twice today.

We often use the present perfect with: today, this morning, this evening, this week, this year, etc. when these periods aren't completed at the moment of speaking.
 He's only seen her for two months this year. (The year isn't finished.)
 She's tried to phone him twice today. (Today isn't finished.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete these questions.

- 1 How many times (she/write) to him this month?
- 2 How many times (she/phone) him today?

Step 3

It's the first time .../the best ... + the present perfect

Sally's now in Western Australia. It's the first time she's lived in a desert. It hasn't rained in this region for five years. It's the longest drought they've ever had. Sally's eating with some aboriginals. It's the first time she's eaten kangaroo meat. It's the best meat she's ever tasted.

• We use the present perfect (NOT the simple present) after *It's/This is the first (second, third*, etc.) *time* ... and often after superlatives.

It's the first time she's lived in a desert. (NOT she lives) the longest drought they've ever had

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Answer the questions.

1 Has she eaten kangaroo before? No, it's ... it. 2 Does she like it? Yes, it's ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Where's Sally been? 2 Where's Sally gone?
- 2 1 has she written 2 has she phoned
- 3 1 the first time she's eaten it. 2 the best meat she's ever tasted.

10

The past simple: *He came* OR the present perfect: *He's come*

Jenny Price is 16. She lives with her mother in Sidmouth. It's 6 p.m. on Thursday evening and everyone's asking: 'Where's Jenny?' She left school at 4 o'clock, but she hasn't come home. She hasn't phoned her mother. She hasn't left a note. None of her friends have seen her since 4 o'clock. She's disappeared.

What happened before 4 o'clock this afternoon? Jenny was at school all day. She didn't go straight home after school. At five past four she bought some sweets at the corner shop. Then she said goodbye to her friends.

Step 1

The difference between the past simple and the present perfect

• We use the past simple to talk about an event or a situation that happened at a particular time in the past, which is now finished.

She left school at 4 o'clock.

(This is a finished action that happened at a particular time.) *Jenny was at school all day.* (She isn't there now because school is finished.)

• We use the present perfect when we're more interested in the present results or effects of a past action. The action is unfinished at the time of speaking.

She hasn't come home. (She isn't at home now.) She's disappeared. (That's the present situation.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Look at these two sentences.

Present perfect: A Jenny has had the same boyfriend for six months. Past simple: B Jenny had the same boyfriend for six months.

- 1 Does A mean she has the same boyfriend now?
- 2 Does A mean she doesn't go out with him now?
- 3 Does B mean she has the same boyfriend now?
- 4 Does B mean she doesn't go out with him now?

Step 2

Time words often used with the past simple

Jenny's parents came to live in Sidmouth 18 years ago. Jenny was born two years later. Her father left home when Jenny was twelve. He went to live with another woman. For the next two years Jenny's mother was very poor. Then Jenny's grandfather died and left them a lot of money. They bought a new house. It was Jenny's 16th birthday last Tuesday. Her GCSE exams started yesterday.

• In sentences with the past simple there is often a word, phrase or clause that tells us when the action happened or when a situation existed.

Jenny's parents came to Sidmouth 18 years ago.

Her father left home when Jenny was twelve.

For the next two years Jenny's mother was very poor.

Her GCSE exams started yesterday.

We use the past simple (not the present perfect) after the question word *When?*. When **did** Jenny's father **leave** home? (past simple)

NOT When has Jenny's father left home? (present perfect)

• When the time that the action happened is understood, we can use the past simple without time words and phrases.

He went to live with another woman.

(We understand that this happened immediately after he left home.)

They bought a new house.

(We understand that this was soon after the grandfather died.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Which words, phrases or clauses answer the question When? in these sentences.

- 1 Jenny's parents moved to Sidmouth when they got married.
- 2 They were happy at first.
- 3 Her father lost his job in 1990.
- 4 Jenny met her first boyfriend last year.

Step 3

Time words often used with the present perfect

It's now 24 hours after Jenny's disappearance. Detective Inspector Green has come to Sidmouth to investigate. There's been no news of Jenny today. Her mother hasn't seen her since yesterday morning. Inspector Green has already spoken to her mother. He's just checked all the local hospitals. But he hasn't spoken to Jenny's teachers yet. They've known Jenny for five years. The Inspector still hasn't discovered why Jenny has disappeared.

• In sentences with the present perfect there's often a word or a phrase which shows that the action or situation is a present one, or which connects the present situation with the past. These are the most common:

today this morning, week, etc. just still yet already recently since

There's been no news of Jenny **today**. Her mother hasn't seen her **since** yesterday morning.

Inspector Green has **already** spoken to her mother.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

What is the word in these sentences that often goes with the present perfect?

- 1 He's just checked all the local hospitals.
- 2 He hasn't spoken to Jenny's teachers yet.
- 3 He still hasn't discovered why Jenny has disappeared.

Inspector Green went to Jenny's home. He was there for an hour. Now he's at her school. He's been there for two hours. Jenny's headteacher introduced him: 'The police have come to school this morning to ask you about Jenny Price.'

After school, one of the students told his parents: 'The police came to school this morning. They think Jenny Price has been kidnapped.'

• We can use time words and phrases (*for two hours, this morning*, etc.) with the past simple and the present perfect.

Past simple: He was at Jenny's home for an hour.

(His visit, which lasted an hour, is now finished.)

Present perfect: He's been at the school for two hours.

(His visit to the school is not finished. After two hours he's still there.)

Present perfect: 'The police have come to school this morning to ask you about *Jenny Price*.' (The morning isn't finished.)

Past simple: 'The police came to school this morning.'

(The morning is finished. It's now evening.)

• We can also use these words and phrases with either the present perfect or the past simple:

all morning all afternoon all evening all year all his life

this afternoon this evening this year

today tonight

for two hours, for three weeks, for ten years, etc.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Answer the questions.

- 1 Jenny's mother didn't sleep all night; she was so worried. Is the night finished now?
- 2 She slept for an hour this morning. Is it the morning now?
- 3 She has waited by the telephone all day. Is it still today?
- 4 'I haven't seen the newspaper this evening. Is there any news of Jenny?' Is it the evening now?

^{3 1} just 2 yet 3 still

^{4 1} Yes. 2 No. 3 Yes. 4 Yes.

The present perfect continuous: He's been waiting for hours

The rock band Avalon are giving a concert in London. People are queueing to get tickets. A reporter's talking to a man in the queue: 'How long have you been standing here?' 'I've been waiting for two hours. Some people have been queueing all day. That girl over there has been waiting since 6 o'clock this morning!'

Step 1

Actions that continue into the present

 We use the present perfect continuous to talk about an action that started in the past, that has continued over a period of time and is still continuing now.

NOW **PAST** I've been waiting for two hours. (He arrived two hours ago and he's still waiting now.)

 We often use the present perfect continuous with for and since to say how long an action has been happening.

Note: We don't use the present continuous here.

I've been waiting for two hours. (NOT I'm waiting for two hours.) She's been waiting since 6 a.m. (NOT She's waiting since 6 a.m.) (For the uses of for, since see Unit 85.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Some people came early this morning, so they/wait/all day.
- 2 One girl said: 'I/queue/6 o'clock this morning.'

Step 2

The forms of the present perfect continuous

Affirmative

I've been working You've been working He's been working She's been working It's been working We've been working You've been working They've been working

Negative

I haven't been working You haven't been working He hasn't been working She hasn't been working It hasn't been working We haven't been working You haven't been working They haven't been working

Ouestions

Have I been working? Have you been working? Has he been working? Has she been working? Has it been working? Have we been working? Have you been working? Have they been working?

- We form the present perfect continuous with have/has + been + -ing.
- Been is usually pronounced /bin/.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put the sentences a) into the negative b) into the question form.

- 1 They've been queueing.
- 2 He's been waiting.

Step 3

Actions repeated over a period of time

The reporter's talking to a young woman in the queue:

'Have you ever seen Avalon in concert?'

'No, I haven't. I've been trying to get into one of their concerts for years. I've been buying their albums for a long time. In fact, I've been listening to their music since I was 15.'

 We use the present perfect continuous to talk about repeated actions which have continued over a period of time up to now.

PAST 1991 1993 1994 1995 NOW

I've been buying their albums for a long time. I've been trying to get into one of their concerts for years.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the answers.

- 1 Has she often tried to see them in concert? Yes ... for years.
- 2 Has she often bought their albums? Yes, ... for a long time.
- 3 Has she often listened to their music? Yes, ... since she was 15.

Step 4

Actions that have just stopped

The reporter has arrived back at the office. His editor's talking to him. 'What have you been doing?'

'I've been standing in the rain for the last hour. I've been talking to some of the people in the queue for the Avalon concert.'

• We also use the present perfect continuous to talk about an action which started in the past, which continued over a period, and which has just stopped.

1 hour ago NOW

I've been standing in the rain for the last hour. (He isn't standing in the rain now. He's just come back to the office.)

Note: We don't use the present perfect continuous with verbs that aren't normally used in the continuous form. (See Unit 2.)

(For the difference between the present perfect continuous and the present perfect simple, see Unit 12.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

- 1 Was the reporter standing in the rain a short time ago?
- 2 Is he talking to the people in the queue now?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 ... so they've been waiting all day. 2 I've been queueing since 6 o'clock this morning.
- 2 1a) They haven't been queueing. b) Have they been queueing? 2a) He hasn't been waiting. b) Has he been waiting?
- 3 1 Yes, she's been trying to see them for years. 2 Yes, she's been buying their albums for a long time. 3 Yes, she's been listening to their music since she was 15.
- 4 1 Yes. 2 No.

12

The present perfect: continuous or simple?

Mandy Batista has been cleaning her apartment this morning. So far she's cleaned the kitchen and she's done the bathroom. She hasn't done the bedroom or the living room yet.

Step 1

Actions over a period of time or completed actions?

- We use the present perfect continuous to talk about an activity over a period of time. It doesn't matter if it's finished or not. (See Unit 11.)

 Mandy has been cleaning her apartment this morning.
- We normally use the present perfect simple to talk about a completed action. We're interested in the present result of the action. (See Unit 7.)

She's cleaned the kitchen.

(The kitchen is finished. It's clean now.)

She hasn't done the bedroom.

(The bedroom isn't done. It's still dirty.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

- 1 What has Mandy been doing?
- 2 What has she done so far?

Step 2

Actions over a long period or actions over a shorter period?

Mandy works at NASA, the American Space Agency in Houston, Texas. She's always worked in the space industry, but this is a new job and she's only been working at NASA for six weeks. She's been trying to get a job there for years. She's lived in Houston all her life, but a few days ago she moved into a new apartment. She's only been living there for four days.

- We can use both the present perfect continuous and the present perfect simple (with verbs like *work* and *live*) to talk about actions that started in the past and still continue now.
- But we normally use the present perfect simple for actions or situations that continue over a long period.

She's always worked in the space industry.

• We normally use the present perfect continuous for actions or situations that continue over a shorter period.

She's been working at NASA for six weeks.

• Note that we can use the present perfect continuous for actions that continue over a long period when we're talking about repeated actions.

She's been trying to get a job there for years.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

- 1 Has she lived in Houston for long? Yes, she ... all her life.
- 2 Has she lived in the apartment for very long? No, she ... only ... four days.

For hundreds of years people have asked the question, 'Are we alone in the universe?' For the last few weeks NASA has been receiving reports from the American public about strange objects in the sky. They've received several letters from a man in Arizona and Mandy has talked to him twice on the phone. He says that a spacecraft has landed three times near his home, and that he's met a 'man' from outer space!

• We can use both the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous to say how long something has been happening. (See Step 2.)

For hundreds of years people have asked the question.

For the last few weeks NASA has been receiving reports.

• But we must use the present perfect simple to say how many things we've done or how many times something has happened.

They've received several letters from a man in Arizona.

A spacecraft has landed three times near his home.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete these questions.

- 1 How many times/a spacecraft/land/near the man's home?
- 2 How long/NASA/receive/reports about objects in the sky?

Step 4

Verbs not used in the present perfect continuous

Mandy has been divorced for three years, and she hasn't had any contact with her ex-husband for the last year. For the last month she's been going out with a pilot. She's known him since she started work at NASA.

• Some verbs like *be, have* (= possess), *know*, etc. (when they describe a state, not an action) aren't used in the present perfect continuous.

Mandy has been divorced for three years. (NOT Mandy has been being divorced) She hasn't had any contact with her husband for the last year.

(NOT She hasn't been having any contact)

She's known him since she started work at NASA. (NOT She's been knowing him) (For verbs which aren't normally used in the continuous form, see Unit 3, Step 3.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Mandy (be) at NASA for six weeks.
- 2 She (have) a new boyfriend for a month.
- 3 The pilot (know) her since she started work at NASA.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 She's been cleaning her apartment. 2 She's cleaned the kitchen and she's done the bathroom.
- 2 1 Yes, she's lived there all her life. 2 No, she's only been living there for four days.
- 3 1 How many times has a spacecraft landed
- near the man's home? 2 How long has NASA been receiving reports about objects in the sky?
- 4 1 Mandy has been at NASA for six weeks.
 - 2 She's had a new boyfriend for a month.
 - 3 The pilot has known her since she started work at NASA.

The past perfect: He had come

In 1994 Enzo Manzoni was living in the Italian quarter of Los Angeles. He was an Italian immigrant from Naples. He had come to the USA in 1992. He'd been in America for two years, but he hadn't learnt to speak much English. During those two years he'd worked hard, and by 1994 he'd saved up enough money to go back to Naples for a holiday. On July 16th his plane left Los Angeles airport at 20.30. After Enzo had eaten a large dinner and had drunk some wine, he fell asleep.

Step 1

Uses of the past perfect

• If we're already talking about the past, we use the past perfect when we want to talk about an earlier past.

Enzo had come to the USA in 1992.

(We're talking about the past -1994. So we use the past perfect to talk about what happened in an earlier past -1992.)

• When something happened in the past before another thing, we use the past perfect for the first action and usually the past simple for the second action.

(1st action) (2nd action)

After he'd eaten a large dinner, he fell asleep.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which thing happened first? Which thing happened after that? Write (1st) and (2nd).

- 1 He'd emigrated to Los Angeles. ... He worked hard. ...
- 2 He decided to go to Naples. ... He'd saved up enough money. ...
- 3 He fell asleep. ... He'd had a big meal. ...

Step 2

The forms of the past perfect

• We form the past perfect with *had* + a past participle.

Affirmative Negative I'd (had) started I hadn't (had not) started You'd started You hadn't started He'd started He hadn't started She'd started She hadn't started It'd started It hadn't started We'd started We hadn't started You hadn't started You'd started They hadn't started They'd started

Note the short answers.
 Had Enzo come from Naples? Yes, he had.
 Had he learnt English? No, he hadn't.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put the verbs into the past perfect.

- 1 How long (live) Enzo in America?
- 2 He (not make) many friends in Los Angeles.
- 3 He (want) to go back to Naples for a long time.

Questions

Had I started? Had you started? Had he started? Had she started? Had it started? Had we started? Had you started? Had they started? Enzo woke up when his plane landed. When he looked at his watch, he was surprised. The flight hadn't taken very long. When he'd been through customs, he came out of the terminal. He was surprised no-one had come to meet him. After he'd waited for a bit, he took a bus into the city. He was amazed when he saw how much Naples had changed.

• When one action is an immediate reaction to another, or when the two actions are almost simultaneous, we use the past simple for both actions.

Past simple

+

Past simple

When he looked at his watch,

he was surprised.

• But when it is clear that the first action was completed before the second started, we often use the past perfect.

Past perfect

Past simple

After he'd waited for a bit,

he took a bus.

• Note the difference: Enzo woke up when his plane landed.

(Enzo woke up at the same time that the plane landed.)

Enzo woke up when the plane had landed.

(The plane landed, and after that Enzo woke up.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

In which sentence was one action completed before another started?

- 1 He went back to Naples as soon as he'd saved enough money.
- 2 By the time the bus arrived in the city, he was very confused.
- 3 He was amazed when he saw how different Naples was.

Step 4

The past perfect continuous

Enzo sat down on a bench. After he'd been sitting there for a few minutes, he asked a policeman where he was. 'New York, of course!' He hurried back to the airport. When he arrived, the airline had been calling his name for the last 20 minutes. They'd been looking for him everywhere. But they hadn't found him, so the plane had left for Naples. It had only stopped in New York to pick up more passengers!

• We use the past perfect continuous if we want to emphasise that something had been in progress continuously up to a certain time in the past.

The airline **had been calling** his name for the last 20 minutes. (This had continued during the 20 minutes before he arrived.)

• We form the past perfect continuous with had/hadn't been + an -ing form.

Affirmative: He'd (He had) been waiting **Negative:** He hadn't been waiting **Questions:** Had he been waiting?

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the sentences with the past perfect continuous or the simple past.

- 1 Enzo (live) in Los Angeles for two years when he (decide) to go back to Naples.
- 2 On the plane Enzo (eat) for an hour when he (fall) asleep.
- 3 Enzo (not sit) on the bench for long, when he (see) a policeman.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 11st 2nd 22nd 1st 32nd 1st
- 2 1 had Enzo lived 2 He hadn't made 3 He'd wanted
- 3 Sentence 1
- 4 1 had been living decided 2 had been eating fell 3 hadn't been sitting saw

The future: will/won't, shall/shan't

Jan and Mike want to go to Eurodisney. They're trying to decide when to go.

Mike: I think it'll be better in October. The hotels will be cheaper then. There won't be as many people. In July we'll probably have to queue for hours to go on the rides. We shan't have time to see everything.

Jan: Yes, but the weather won't be as good in October. It'll probably rain all the time, and it'll be cold. We'll have to take winter clothes.

Step 1

Will, won't, shall, shan't for simple predictions

• We use *will* or *won't* when we make simple predictions about future actions or situations.

The hotels **will** be cheaper in October. But the weather **won't** be as good.

• After *I* and *we*, we can use *will* or *shall* in affirmative sentences. But we normally use the short forms (*I'll*, *we'll*).

We'll have to take winter clothes.

(= We shall have to/We will have to)

In negative sentences, after *I* and *we*, we can use *won't* or *shan't*. *Won't* is more common.

We won't have time to see everything.

= We **shan't** have time to see everything.

• We often use I(don't) think, I(don't) expect, I'm sure, I'm afraid and probably, definitely, perhaps, etc. with will and won't.

I think it'll be better. We'll probably have to queue for hours.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Jan prefers July, because she thinks the weather ... be better.
- 2 Mike prefers October, because they ... have to pay as much for a hotel.
- 3 Jan says: 'July will be better, because we ... need to take winter clothes.'

Step 2

Shall I?/Shall we? for offers and suggestions

Mike: So, what shall we do? Shall we go in October?

Jan: No, let's go in July. I know it'll be more crowded then, but I'm sure the weather will be better.

Mike: OK. Shall I book the tickets?

• In questions, we use *Shall I/Shall we* (and not *will*) when we make suggestions or offers:

Shall we go in October? **Shall** I book the tickets?

• and when we ask for suggestions. What **shall** we do?

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Complete the questions.

- 1 Jan asks Mike to suggest a date for their trip. 'When go?'
- 2 Mike offers to go to the travel agent's. '.... to the travel agent's?'

Step 3

Will for intentions (sudden decisions and requests)

Jan and Mike are now at Eurodisney. Jan's trying to persuade Mike to go on the Big Thunder Mountain ride, but Mike won't go. He's sure the ride will make him sick.

Jan: Come on! You'll be all right. I'll sit next to you. I'll hold your hand,

Mike: No, I've told you. I won't come. I'll just sit here and watch.

Jan: Oh, OK. Will you hold my camera? Will you take a photo of me?

Mike: Yes, sure.

Jan: And afterwards we'll have a drink at the Last Chance Café, and I'll tell you all about it.

• We can use will/won't when we talk about something we decide to do or not to do at the moment of speaking.

I'll sit next to you.

We'll have a drink at the Last Chance Café.

• We use will to make a request. Will you hold my camera? Will you take a photo of me?

• We use *won't* when we refuse to do something. I won't come. Mike won't go on the Big Thunder Mountain ride.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Jan and Mike are in the Last Chance Café after Jan's ride. Complete their conversation.

- 1 What will you have to drink, Jan? I ... anything, thanks. I feel a bit sick.
- 2 What about you, Mike? I think ... a coffee.
- 3 Jan, are you all right? No. I think ... to the toilet.

Going to OR will?

Joe: Hi! What are you going to do today?

Daniel: I'm going to go for a bike ride.
Joe: Where are you going to go?

Daniel: Princetown. I was going to ride to Bovey, but it's too far.

Joe: I'll come with you, if you like, and I'll bring some sandwiches.

Step 1

Decisions about the future

• We use *be going to* + infinitive (and not *will*) to talk about future actions we've already decided on.

I'm going to go for a bike ride. (A decision he made before the phone call.) What are you going to do? (= What are your plans?)

• We use *was/were going to* + infinitive to talk about intentions or plans we had in the past (but we've now changed our plans).

I was going to ride to Bovey, but ... (That was his intention, but it isn't now.)

• In contrast, we generally use *will* (NOT *going to*) when we decide to do something at the moment of speaking. (See Unit 14.)

I'll come with you, if you like. (This wasn't Joe's intention before he phoned.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Use going to/will in your answers.

- 1 What does Daniel intend to do today? 2 Where has he decided to go?
- 3 But what was his first intention?
- 4 They decide to take some food. What does Joe say?

Step 2

Predicting future events: will or going to?

Daniel's looking at the weather forecast in the newspaper. 'It will be fine at first, but rain will spread from the west to all areas by late morning. The westerly wind will become fresh to strong. The temperature will fall to 8° this afternoon.' Now he's phoning Joe.

Daniel: The weather forecast's awful. It's going to rain and it's going to be very windy. It won't be much fun on the road.

Joe: Well, what shall we do?

Daniel: Eat our sandwiches in the kitchen, I suppose!

- We normally use *will/won't* for simple predictions. (See Unit 14.) Rain *will spread* from the west. It won't be much fun.
- But we use *going to* (NOT *will*) for predictions about the future when there's present evidence of a future event.

It's going to rain. It's going to be very windy.

(The weather forecast he's looking at tells him this.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

What does the forecast tell Daniel about this afternoon's temperature?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2 1 1 He's going to go for a bike ride. 2 He's going to go to Princetown. 3 He was going to ride to Bovey. 4 "I'll bring some sandwiches."

2 $\,$ 1 It (The temperature) is going to fall (to 8°

The future continuous: I'll be waiting and the future perfect: He'll have left

It's Saturday morning. Andy's phoning Anna to ask if she's free this evening.

Andy: I could come round at about 7.30.

Anna: No, sorry. I'll be playing volleyball at 7.30. My match starts at 7.15.

Andy: How about 9 o'clock?

Anna: No, I'll be having a swim then, after the match.

Andy: Ah, OK, I understand. Will you be seeing Alison today?

Anna: Yes, I'll be seeing her at lunchtime. She always eats at the same pub as me on Saturdays. Why?

Andy: Can you ask her if she's free this evening?

Anna: She won't be going out this evening. She'll be watching the

football on television.

Step 1

Form and uses of the future continuous

Subject + will/won't + be + ing form of the verb

Affirmative: I'll be playing volleyball.

Negative: She won't be going out.

Ouestion: Will you be going out?

• We use the future continuous ($will\ be/won't\ be + -ing$) to say that something will be in progress at a certain time in the future.

I'll be playing volleyball at 7.30.

(She'll be in the middle of her game.)

I'll be having a swim at 9 o'clock.

(Anna will already be in the swimming pool at 9 o'clock.)

We also use the future continuous to talk about things that will happen
 a) because they're part of the normal routine:

On the same pub as ma one of the same pub as many than the same pub as

I'll be seeing her at lunchtime. She always eats at the same pub as me on Saturdays.

(Anna always sees Alison at lunchtime on Saturdays.)

or b) because they've been planned.

She'll be watching the football on television.

(Alison decided to watch this football match some time ago.)

Note: We could also use the present continuous in b). (See Unit 4.)

She's watching the football on television this evening.

Note: We can also use the future continuous in questions to ask about somebody's plans because we want them to do something.

Will you be seeing Alison today?

(Andy asks this because he wants Anna to give Alison a message.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer the questions.

- 1 What will Anna be doing at 7.45?
- 2 Will Alison be going out tonight?
- 3 What will she be doing?

Step 2

Form and uses of the future perfect

Andy's now phoning Fiona to ask if she's free this evening. Fiona: I'm sorry, Andy. I've got a lot of college work to do.

Andy: What time will you have finished?

Fiona: I'll have finished my work by 9, but my uncle will have arrived by then. He's just come over from Australia. He won't have eaten when he arrives, so we'll be having a late dinner. Sorry.

Subject + will/won't + have + past participle of the verb

Affirmative: I'll have finished.

Negative: He won't have eaten.

Question: Will you have finished?

• We use the future perfect (*will have/won't have* + past participle) to talk about something that hasn't happened yet, but that will be or won't be completed before a certain time in the future.

I'll have finished my work by 9. (by 9 = not later than 9 o'clock) He won't have eaten when he arrives.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

What will have happened at Fiona's by 9 o'clock? (Two things.)

Step 3

Another use of the future continuous and the future perfect

Andy's still trying to arrange something for this evening.

Andy: I think I'll phone Lucy.

Friend: Don't phone her now, Andy.

Andy: Why not? She won't be in bed. She'll have got up by now.

Friend: I know, but it's Saturday morning. She'll be doing the shopping

now. She won't have got home yet.

• We can also use the future continuous and the future perfect (and the simple future) to talk about the present. We use them when we think that something is probably happening at the moment or has probably happened by now.

She'll be doing the shopping now. (future continuous)

She'll have got up by now. (future perfect)

She won't be in bed. (simple future)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

- 1 Is Lucy in bed now? What does Andy think?
- 2 What's Lucy doing now? What does Andy's friend think?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 She'll be playing volleyball. 2 No, she won't. 3 She'll be watching the football on television.
- 1, 2 AND 3 2 1 She'll have finished her work. 2 Her uncle will have arrived.
- 3 1 She won't be in bed./She'll have got up by now. 2 She'll be doing the shopping.

17

The passive (1): *He was sacked* Forms and main uses

DJ Mark Walsh was sacked yesterday by Radio London. Mark had been given the job of DJ a month ago. Yesterday morning he had an argument with a woman caller, Mrs Dora Hind. The argument was heard by the director of the radio station, Mr Brian Hopkins. The programme was immediately stopped, Mr Walsh was told to leave and old Beatles records were played for the rest of the show.

The morning show on Radio London is listened to by over 1 million people. Mr Hopkins commented: 'Our listeners must be treated with respect. Mrs Hind shouldn't have been insulted. Mr Walsh hasn't been offered his job back. If he'd apologised, he wouldn't have been sacked. A new DJ will be chosen soon and a letter of apology is being sent to Mrs Hind.'

Mr Walsh later agreed to be interviewed by the Daily Express. He told the reporter: 'I hope to be offered a job by another radio station. I was sacked for no good reason. I was being insulted by a silly woman. I was called a lot of rude names. So I insulted her back. What's wrong with that?'

Step 1

Forms of the passive

• Radio London sacked Mark Walsh is an active sentence.

Mark Walsh was sacked by Radio London is a passive sentence.

The object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence.

Subject + verb + object
Active: Radio London sacked Mark Walsh.
Passive: Mark Walsh was sacked by Radio London.

• We form the passive with the verb be (is, was, has been, etc.) + a past participle

(heard, stopped, etc.)

Subject + verb + past participle
The argument was heard by the director.

• The tense of the verb *be* changes to form the different tenses in the passive.

Present simple: The show **is listened to** by 1 million people.

Present continuous: A letter **is being sent** to Mrs Hind.

Past simple: The argument was heard by the director.
Present perfect: Mr Walsh has not been offered his job back.
Past continuous: I was being insulted by a silly woman.
Past perfect: He had been given the job a month ago.

Future: A new DJ will be chosen soon.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Make the sentences passive.

1 A lot of people listen to Mark Walsh's show.

2 Radio London have received a lot of complaints.

3 They won't allow Mark Walsh to work for them again.

4 A lot of people in Liverpool remember the Beatles.

Step 2 Passive infinitives

• Some verbs are followed by an infinitive, for example modal verbs (can. must. should, will, would, etc.). When these verbs are used in a passive construction, we use a passive infinitive (be + past participle).

Active: We must treat our listeners with respect. Passive: Our listeners must be treated with respect.

Note the past form of the passive infinitive (have been + past participle).

Active: He shouldn't have insulted Mrs Hind. Passive: Mrs Hind shouldn't have been insulted.

• We also use a passive infinitive construction after verbs like want to, expect to, agree to, hope to, etc.

Mr Walsh agreed to **be interviewed** by the Daily Express. I hope to **be offered** a job by another radio station.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Make passive sentences.

- 1 DJs mustn't insult their listeners.
- 2 I don't think they should have sacked Mark Walsh.
- 3 Mark doesn't expect that they'll give him his job back.

Step 3

Main uses of the passive

• We use the passive when the person or thing doing the action isn't important or isn't known or is understood.

The programme was immediately stopped.

(It isn't necessary to say who stopped the programme.)

Mr Walsh was told to leave the studio.

(We understand that the director told him to leave.)

Old Beatles records were played for the rest of the show.

(We don't know who played them, but it isn't important.)

- A passive sentence is usually more formal than an active one. Compare: We'll choose a new DJ soon. (Active. Informal comment) A new DJ will be chosen soon. (Passive. Formal statement)
- The passive is very common in English, especially in news reports, signs and notices, scientific and technical descriptions. In these contexts we're more interested in the things that happen rather than what/who makes them happen.
- In a passive construction we can mention the person or thing that does the action (the agent) after the word by.

He was sacked by Radio London. He was being insulted by a silly woman.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

A or B: Which is better?

- 1 A: They opened Radio London in 1994. B: Radio London was opened in 1994.
- 2 A: They told Mr Walsh to apologise to Mrs Hind. B: Mr Walsh was told to apologise to Mrs Hind.
- 3 A: Mr Walsh will be paid until the end of the month. B: They'll pay Mr Walsh until the end of the month.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Mark Walsh's show is listened to by a lot of people. 2 A lot of complaints have been received by Radio London. 3 Mark Walsh won't be allowed to work for them again. 4 The Beatles are remembered by a lot of people in Liverpool.
- 2 1 Listeners mustn't be insulted by DJs. 2 I don't think Mark Walsh should have been sacked. 3 Mark doesn't expect to be given his job back.
- 3 1B 2B 3A

The passive (2): other constructions

Bill Marsh is too old to look after himself. He's in an old people's home called Merrifield. A nurse has to feed him. He hates being fed. She tells him he's very difficult. He doesn't like being criticised, so he gets angry. She tells him to stop shouting, but he's tired of being told what to do. He remembers being treated like this when he was a child.

Step 1

The passive -ing form

• We can use the *-ing* form of a verb in the passive. We use *being* + past participle. *He hates being fed*.

(Active: He hates people feeding him.)

He's tired of being told what to do.

(Active: He's tired of people telling him what to do.)

He remembers **being treated** like this when he was a child. (Active: He remembers people treating him like this.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Make passive sentences.

- 1 The nurses call him 'Billy'. He doesn't like ... 'Billy'.
- 2 They tell him he's difficult. He's tired of ... he's difficult.
- 3 A doctor examines him every month. He hates ...

Step 2

Passive verb + infinitive with to

Bill is said to be difficult, but he had a difficult childhood. His parents are thought to have died when he was 14. He went to work on a farm. He was expected to get up at 5.30 a.m. and to work for twelve hours. He was considered to be a good worker. But when he was 16, he was found to have poliomyelitis, and he's believed to have spent two years in hospital.

• We often use an infinitive (to have) or a perfect infinitive (to have had) in passive constructions with these verbs:

believe consider expect fear feel find

intend know report say think understand

Passive: *Bill's said to be difficult.* (Active: People say Bill is difficult.)

Passive: He was considered **to be** a good worker.

(Active: They considered he was a good worker.)
Passive: He's believed to have spent two years in hospital.

(Active: They believe he spent two years in hospital.) Passive: *His parents are thought to have died when he was 14.*

(Active: They think his parents died when he was 14.)

• Note the difference between the infinitive and the perfect infinitive. Compare: When he was 16, he was found to have poliomyelitis.

(= At the age of 16 he had poliomyelitis.)

When he was 16, he was found to have had poliomyelitis.

(At the age of 16 he didn't have poliomyelitis. He had it before he was 16.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Make passive sentences.

- 1 People know that Bill is very independent.
- 2 People say that Bill has no brothers or sisters.
- 3 People think that Bill had a difficult childhood.

Step 3

It's said .../It's known .../It's reported ... etc.

It's thought that there are over 1 million old people in Britain who can't look after themselves. It was reported that more than 200 old people died of cold last winter. It's feared that most of them died because they had nobody to look after them. It's often said that this is one of society's biggest problems. It's expected that more old people's homes will be built in the future.

• We can use it + a passive verb + a that clause to talk about what people in general say or think or feel about a situation. It can be used with these verbs: agree, announce, decide, expect, fear, feel, find, hope, intend, know, mention, regret, report, say, suggest, think, understand.

It's thought (that) there are over 1 million old people.

(= There are thought to be over 1 million old people.) *It's* often *said* (that) this is one of society's biggest problems.

(= This is often said to be one of society's biggest problems.)

It was reported (that) more than 200 old people died of cold last winter.

(= More than 200 old people were reported to have died.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite the sentences, using It + a passive verb.

- 1 People think that many old people die because no-one looks after them.
- 2 The authorities have announced that more old people's homes will be built.
- 3 People hope that the situation will improve.

Step 4

Be supposed to

Merrifield is supposed to be a very good old people's home. The nurses are supposed to be well-trained and kind. But Bill doesn't like them. If he gets out of bed at the wrong time, he's told: 'Billy, you're supposed to be in bed.' When he watches a late night film, they say: 'Billy, you aren't supposed to watch television after 10.30.' Bill often gets very angry. 'This is supposed to be a home, not a prison!'

• *Be supposed to* has two different meanings. It can mean that something is the general opinion of most people.

Merrifield **is supposed to** be a good old people's home. (= People say that Merrifield is a good old people's home.)

• It can also mean that something should happen because it's the rule or because it's been planned.

You're supposed to be in bed.

(You should be in bed because that's the rule.)

This **is supposed to** be a home, not a prison.

(Merrifield was intended to be a home, not a prison.)

• We use the negative form to say that something isn't allowed. You aren't supposed to watch television after 10.30. (This isn't permitted.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Rewrite the sentences, using be supposed to.

- 1 Bill has to get up at 6.30 a.m. that's the rule.
- 2 Bill sometimes smokes, but smoking isn't permitted.
- 3 People say the nurses at Merrifield are nice.

Step 5

He was given .../He's been offered ..., etc.

Last Thursday Bill was given a boiled egg for his breakfast. 'I've been given a boiled egg three times this week. You know I don't like boiled eggs!' He got very angry. He was promised some toast and marmalade if he was quiet. He just got angrier, so he was given an injection to calm him down. The nurses refused to look after him any more, so he's been offered a room at another home. He was shown his new room this morning but he refuses to move.

• When a verb has two objects (indirect and direct: see Unit 37) it's possible to have two passive sentences.

(Active: They gave Bill a boiled egg.)

1 Bill was given a boiled egg.

2 A boiled egg was given to Bill.

But we normally make the person the subject, as in sentence 1.

He was promised some toast and marmalade.

He's been offered a room at another home.

• We can use this construction with these verbs: allow, give, hand, lend, offer, owe, pay, promise, sell, send, show, teach, tell.

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Make passive sentences.

- 1 The authorities have sent Bill a letter saying he must leave.
- 2 They've offered Bill a better room at the new home.
- 3 They say they'll give him the kind of food he likes.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2,3,4 AND 5

- 1 1 He doesn't like being called 'Billy'. 2 He's tired of being told he's difficult. 3 He hates being examined.
- 2 1 Bill is known to be very independent. 2 Bill is said to have no brothers or sisters. 3 Bill is thought to have had a difficult childhood.
- 3 1 It's thought that many old people die because no-one looks after them. 2 It's been announced that more old people's homes will
- be built. 3 It's hoped that the situation will improve.
- 4 1 Bill's supposed to get up at 6.30 a.m. 2 but he isn't supposed to (smoke). 3 The nurses at Merrifield are supposed to be nice.
- 5 1 Bill's (has) been sent a letter saying he must leave. 2 Bill's been offered a better room at the new home. 3 They say he'll be given the kind of food he likes.

Have/get something done

When Steve and Louise bought their flat, it was in a terrible state. They couldn't do all the jobs themselves. So they had central heating installed. They also got the windows replaced and they had the flat painted. But they haven't had the carpets cleaned yet. And now they need to have a new lock fitted to the front door because yesterday Louise had her car broken into and her handbag stolen. The front door key was in her bag!

Step 1

Use of have/get something done

- We can say we have something done if we don't do the job ourselves. We decide to employ another person to do the job for us. Compare:
- A Steve and Louise had their flat painted. (Someone painted their flat for them.) B Steve and Louise painted their flat. (They painted their flat themselves.)
- We can use the verb get instead of have. Get is more informal.
 They got (OR had) the windows replaced.
- We can also use *have something done* when we talk about something, often unpleasant, that happened to someone.

Louise had her car broken into. She had her bag stolen.

Note: We don't normally use get instead of have here.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which jobs did they do themselves?

- 1 They had some new curtains made. 2 They put up some shelves.
- 3 They had a telephone installed. 4 They decorated the bedrooms.

Step 2

The forms of have something done

Subject They They They They Have they Did they	have + are having have had had are going to have had had	object + the electricity central heating a telephone the carpets the bedrooms the roof	past participle checked. installed. installed. cleaned. decorated? repaired?
--	--	--	--

- Note that the tense of the verb have can change.
- We don't use the contracted forms of have ('ve, 's and 'd) with this construction.
 They had the flat painted. (NOT They'd the flat painted.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in the correct form of have.

- 1 Last week they ... the roof repaired.
- 2 At the moment they the bedrooms decorated.
- 3 Next week they ... their new kitchen fitted.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 2,4
- 2 1 they had 2 they're having 3 they're going to have

Questions

Libby Johns wants to join an international expedition to the Himalayas. She's answering some of the questions on the application form.

Are you over 18 and under 60? Yes.
Were you 18 before March 30th this year? Yes.
Were you 18 before March 30th this year:
Are you taking any medication at the moment?
The expedition will be climbing to altitudes of over 6,000m.
Do you have any problems with your breathing?
If so, does your doctor know about the problem?
Did you have any serious illnesses when you were a child? No .
Have you been to the Himalayas before?
Can you attend a meeting in London on June 6th?

Step 1

Basic questions

• To make a question we put the auxiliary verb (*be*, *have*, *do* or a modal verb: *can*, *will*, *would*, etc.) before the subject.

Auxiliary ve	erb Subject	Main verb
Are	you	taking any medication?
Has	Libby	been to the Himalayas before?
Can	she	attend the London meeting?
When be in the	main work it oor	noe before the cubiect

When be is the main verb, it comes before the subject. Are you over 18? Were you 18 before March 30th?

• In the present simple we use do/does to make questions. (See also Unit 1 Step 3.)

	Auxiliary	Subject	Main verb
	Do	you	have any problems with your breathing?
	Does	your doctor	know about the problem?
I	n the past simp	le we use did. (See	e also Unit 5.)
	Did	you	have any serious illnesses?

Note that the main verb is always in the infinitive form.
 Does your doctor know? (NOT Does your doctor knows?)
 Did you have any serious illnesses? (NOT Did you had?)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Make the sentences into questions.

- 1 Libby wants to go to the Himalayas.
- 2 She's hoping to join the expedition.
- 3 She's over 18.
- 4 She's filled in the form.

Step 2

Questions introduced by question words

Libby's leaving next Sunday. Her friends are asking her questions: What time are you leaving on Sunday? – At six in the morning. Where do you fly to? – Kathmandu. How long does the expedition last? – Two months. How many people are there in the group? – Twenty. Where do they come from? – From all over the world. Who's leading the group? – A man called Richard Lane. What does 'Himalaya' mean? – It means 'home of the snows'.

• We often begin questions with the following question words: *What? When? Where? Which? Whose? Why? How?*

What does 'Himalaya' mean? (NOT What means 'Himalaya'?)

- Or with phrases like: What time/colour? What kind (of)? How long? How much? etc. What time are you leaving? (NOT What time you are leaving?)
- Note the position of prepositions (to, from, etc.) in *Wh*-questions. *Where do you fly to? Where do they come from?*

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put the words in the right order.

- 1 is/when/leaving/Libby? 2 is/the expedition/leading/who?
- 3 to/the/does/expedition/where/fly? 4 does/how long/take/get/it/to/there?

Step 3

Negative questions

Libby's packing. A friend has come to say goodbye.

'Hi, Libby. Haven't you packed yet? Can I help?'

'No, it's all right. But I'd like a drink. Why don't you make a cup of tea?'

'OK. ... You haven't packed your camera. Aren't you taking it?'

'Yes, but I need some films for it.'

'Why didn't you tell me? I'll go to the chemist's. Don't they sell films?'

'Yes, but don't worry, I'll get some at the airport tomorrow.'

'The Himalayas! Doesn't it sound exciting! Aren't you lucky!'

• We use negative questions: a) to show surprise: *Haven't you packed yet?*

b) when something seems very probable: *Don't they sell films?* (It's probable the chemist sells them.)

- c) often with *Why*? to show surprise or frustration, or to make a suggestion: *Why didn't you tell me? Why don't you make* a cup of tea?
- d) in exclamations (we usually use an exclamation mark, not a question mark): **Doesn't it sound** exciting! **Aren't you** lucky!

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Make negative questions.

- 1 Libby wants to take photographs. (she/not taking/a camera?)
- 2 She needs sun cream. (Why/she/not go/to the chemist's?)
- 3 Look at this photo of Mount Everest. (it/look/great!)

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Does Libby want to go to the Himalayas? 2 Is she hoping to join the expedition? 3 Is she over 18? 4 Has she filled in the form?
- 2 1 When is Libby leaving? 2 Who is leading the
- expedition? 3 Where does the expedition fly to? 4 How long does it take to get to Kathmandu?
- 3 1 Isn't she taking a camera? 2 Why doesn't she go to the chemist's? 3 Doesn't it look great!

Question tags: You're English, aren't you?

Two young people are at Melbourne airport waiting for their plane back to London.

- A: You're English, aren't you?
- B: Yes, I am.
- A: Our plane's late, isn't it?
- B: Yes, I'm afraid so.
- A: The flight back takes 24 hours, doesn't it?
- B: No. I think it's 26 actually.

Step 1

Use of question tags

- A question tag is an expression like *aren't you?/isn't it?* or *doesn't it?* at the end of a sentence. We use question tags in conversation to ask if what we said is true or not, or if the other person agrees or not.
- If we use a rising intonation (if our voice goes up) with a question tag, we're asking a real question. We're not sure if the answer is yes or no.

You're English, aren't you?

The flight back takes 24 hours, doesn't it?

(In each question his voice rises at the end because he isn't sure if it's true or not.)

• If we use a falling intonation (if our voice goes down), we're expecting the other person to agree with what we've just said.

Our plane's late, isn't it? \(\)
(He means 'I'm sure you agree.')

• Question tags are much less common in American English. Americans often use tag words like *Right*? or *OK*? instead. *You're English, right*? (instead of *You're English, aren't you*?)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Are these 'real' questions or not?

- 1 You're not Australian, are you? 🛰
- 2 It's hot, isn't it?
- 3 They take English money on the plane, don't they?

Step 2

Positive or negative question tag?

A: It's been hot, hasn't it?

B: Yes, very hot. And dry! It hasn't rained for weeks, has it?

A: No, it hasn't.

• If we say something positive, the question tag is usually negative.

Positive Negative *It's been hot, hasn't it?*

• If we say something negative, the question tag is positive.

Negative Positive It hasn't rained for weeks, has it?

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Choose the correct question tag.

- 1 Australia's a big country, isn't it?/is it?
- 2 Things here aren't expensive, aren't they?/are they?
- 3 Food's cheap, isn't it?/is it?

Step 3

Forms of question tags

- A: You're pretty brown.
- B: Yes, I am, aren't I? I spent most of the time on the beach.
- A: But Australians don't get brown, do they?
- B: No, they all wear hats and T-shirts, don't they?
- A: Yes. Everybody's worried about skin cancer, aren't they?
- B: Yes, it seems so. You didn't see any sharks, did you?
- A: No, no sharks. But I saw plenty of snakes.
- B: There are quite a lot of snakes, aren't there?
- A: Yes. They've got poisonous spiders too, haven't they?
- B: Yes, but I didn't see any. Australian wine's quite good, isn't it?
- A: Yes, very good. And the beer. You've tried Australian beer, haven't you?
- B: Oh yes. I've drunk some of that.
- A: Our plane should be leaving soon, shouldn't it?
- B: Yes, let's ask what time it's going, shall we?
- A: You go. I'll stay here.
- B: Look after my bag, will you?
- A: Yes, of course.
- Question tags always have two words: an auxiliary verb (are, can, have, will, etc.) + a pronoun (it, he, they, etc.). The pronoun refers to the subject of the sentence. Australians don't get brown, do they? (they = Australians)
- Note the verbs which we use in question tags.
 - do/does, don't/doesn't Present simple:
 - They all wear hats and T-shirts, don't they?
 - Past simple: did/didn't
 - You didn't see any sharks, did you?
 - have/has, haven't/hasn't Present perfect:
 - You've tried Australian beer, haven't you?
 - Have got: have/has, hasn't/haven't
 - They've got poisonous spiders, haven't they?
- Note the form of the negative question tag after I am. You're pretty brown. Yes, I am, aren't I? (NOT am't I?)
- If a statement has a modal auxiliary verb (will, should, would, might, can, etc.), we use the same auxiliary verb in the question tag.
 - Our plane should be leaving soon, shouldn't it?
- After There is/There are the question tags are is there?/isn't there? and are there?/aren't there?

There are quite a lot of snakes, aren't there?

- The question tag after Let's is shall we? Let's ask what time our plane's leaving, **shall we**?
- After an imperative we can use the following question tags: can you/can't you? will you/won't you? would you? could you?

Look after my bag, will you?

• After *everybody/somebody/nobody*, etc. we use the pronoun *they* in the question tag. (See also Unit 66 Step 1.)

Everybody's worried about skin cancer, aren't they?

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Add question tags.

- 1 Australians drink a lot of beer, ...
- 2 Everybody's friendly, ...
- 3 I suppose you met a lot of nice people, ...
- 4 Let's have a drink....

Step 4

Other uses of question tags

- A: Are you feeling OK?
- B: No, not really. I went out to dinner last night.
- A: And you had too much to eat, did you?
- B: Yes, I did.
- A: And now you've got indigestion, have you?
- B: Yes, I have. You couldn't lend me a dollar, could you? I need some coffee and I haven't got any Australian money left.
- A: Yes, here you are.
- B: You don't know where the nearest toilet is, do you?
- A: Yes, there's one over there.
- We can use a positive question tag (with a rising intonation) after a positive statement to express interest, sympathy, surprise or sarcasm.

Positive statement

Positive question tag

You had too much to eat,

did you? 🖊

Now you've got a indigestion, h

have you?

• We sometimes use a negative statement followed by a positive question tag (with a rising intonation) when we make a request or ask for information.

You couldn't lend me a dollar, could you?

You don't know where the nearest toilet is, do you?

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Someone has lost their plane ticket. Show your concern. You've lost ...
- 2 Ask somebody to help you with your luggage. You couldn't ...
- 3 Ask somebody if they know when the plane gets to London. You don't know when ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 No. 2 No. 3 Yes.
- 2 1 isn't it? 2 are they? 3 isn't it?
- 3 1 don't they? 2 aren't they? 3 didn't you? 4 shall we?
- 4 1 You've lost your plane ticket, have you? 2 You couldn't help me with my luggage, could you? 3 You don't know when the plane gets to London, do you?

Who, What, Which? Do you know who/what/if, etc?

What did Alfred Nobel invent? - Dynamite.

What started in April 1861 in the USA? - The American Civil War.

Who did Lee Harvey Oswald kill in Dallas in 1963? - President Kennedy.

Who killed Lee Harvey Oswald? - Jack Ruby.

Which travels faster - light or sound? - Light.

Which does a herbivore prefer - meat or grass? - Grass.

Step 1

What, who, which as subject or object

Object	+	Auxiliary verb	+ Subject +	Main verb
Who		did	Oswald	kill?
			Who	killed Oswald?
Which		does	a herbivore	prefer?
			Which	travels faster?
What		did	Alfred Nobel	invent?
			What	started in April 18612

• When the question words *who, which, what* are the subject of a sentence, we don't use *do, does, did* with the verb.

(Here we don't say: Who did kill Julius Caesar? Which does travel faster?)

Note: Who did Lee Harvey Oswald kill? (= Who was his victim?)

Who killed Lee Harvey Oswald? (= Who was his killer?)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete these questions.

- 1 Who/discover/oxygen? 2 What/Joseph Priestley/discover/in 1774?
- 3 Which/be/worth more a US dollar or a British pound?

Step 2

What or which + a noun?

What instrument did Louis Armstrong play? – The trumpet. What sea separates England from France? – The English Channel. Which way does the Mississippi flow? – South. Which president of the USA resigned in 1974? – President Nixon.

• We can often use what or which + a noun without changing the meaning. What (OR Which) sea separates England from France?

But *which* is more common with people. And we normally use *which* when there's a limited choice of possibilities, and *what* when there's a large or unlimited choice.

Which US president resigned in 1974? (which + a person)

Which way does the Mississippi flow? (The choice is: north, south, east or west.)

Compare: What instrument did Louis Armstrong play?

(There are a lot of alternatives, but they aren't given.)

Which instrument did he play – the trumpet or the clarinet?

(Here we use *which* because the alternatives are given.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in What or Which.

- 1 ... languages do they speak in Belgium? 2 ... man gave his name to America?
- 3 ... language do they speak in Brazil Spanish or Portuguese?

Step 3

Which for people/things Which one(s) Which of ...

Which country joined the European Union in 1973? Britain. Which / What German composer was also a famous organist? Bach. Which of the Beatles was killed in New York in 1980? John Lennon. London's clocks. Which one is the most famous? Big Ben.

- Who can only be used for people. What on its own is used for things, but with a noun it can be used for people (What German composer?). Which can be used for people (Which German composer?) and things (Which country?).
- We can use which + one/ones and + of.

Which one is the most famous? Which of the Beatles was killed? We can't use what and who with of. We can't say: Who of the Beatles was killed?

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in Which or What.

- 1 Sardinia and Corsica are islands. ... one is French?
- 2 ... country do the Maoris live in New Zealand or Australia?
- 3 ... of the American states is an island? 4 ... is Esperanto?

Step 4

Do you know/Could you tell me, etc. + a question word

Is English the most widely-used language in the world?

Do you know if English is the most widely-used language? No.

Does the River Thames flow east or west?

Could you tell me whether the Thames flows east or west? East.

What does 'goodbye' mean?

Do you know what 'goodbye' means? Yes. 'God be with you'.

- We often begin indirect questions with *Do you know/Could you tell me*. Simple question: Is English the most widely used language? Indirect question: *Do you know if English is the most widely used language?* Simple question: What does 'goodbye' mean? Indirect question: *Do you know what 'goodbye' means?*
- Where there is no question word, we use *if* or *whether*. Simple question: Does the River Thames flow east or west? Indirect question: Could you tell me *if/whether* the Thames flows east or west?

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Start the questions with Do you know.

- 1 What did Bell invent? 2 Was Columbus Spanish?
- 3 Who was Montezuma? 4 What does a speleologist do?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 Who discovered oxygen? 2 What did Priestley discover in 1774? 3 Which is worth more
- 2 1 What 2 Which 3 Which
- 3 1 Which 2 Which 3 Which 4 What
- 4 1 Do you know what Bell invented? 2 Do you know if/whether Columbus was Spanish?
 - 3 Do you know who Montezuma was?
 - 4 Do you know what a speleologist does?

So do I, Neither do I, etc.

Two people are on a flight from London to Barcelona. 'It's a bit bumpy, isn't it? Is it always like this over the Pyrenees?' 'Yes, I'm afraid so, but we'll be there soon.' 'I hope so. Spanish time isn't the same as British time, is it?' 'No, I don' t think so. I think they're an hour ahead.'

'That means it's half past seven in Barcelona now.'

'Yes, I think so.'

'The weather's usually good there, isn't it?'

'I believe so.'

'It'll be nice and warm.'

'Yes, I expect so. I don't think it'll rain much.'

'I hope not. Have you got a street map of Barcelona?'

'No. I'm afraid not.'

'Do you think I'll be able to get one at the airport?'

'I imagine so.'

'Do the airport shops close in the evening?'

'I don't suppose so.'

'The problem is though, they won't accept English money, will they?'

'No, I suppose not.'

Step 1 | I think so/don't think so I hope so/I hope not

 In short answers when we want to agree with what someone has said, we use so after the following verbs: believe, expect, guess, hope, imagine, presume, reckon, seem, suppose, suspect, think, be afraid.

We'll be there soon. - I hope so.

It's half past seven in Barcelona now. - Yes, I think so.

We don't say: I hope or I hope it or I hope that.

 With all of these verbs except guess, hope, presume, suspect, be afraid we often use negative forms with so.

Spanish time isn't the same as British time, is it? – No, I don't think so.

Do the airport shops close in the evening? – I don't suppose so. But we must use not after guess, hope, presume, suspect, be afraid.

I don't think it'll rain much. – I hope not. (NOT I don't hope so.)

Have you got a street map of Barcelona? No, I'm **afraid not**. (NOT I'm not afraid so.)

 We can use both forms with believe, expect and suppose. Do the airport shops close in the evening? - I don't suppose so. They won't accept English money, will they? – No, I suppose not.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Give short answers.

- 1 We'll be able to get a taxi at the airport, won't we? I ... (hope)
- 2 It won't take long to get to the hotel, will it? I... (hope)
- 3 We won't get to the hotel before 9 o'clock, will we? I... (expect)

'We're going to Sitges. It's a place on the coast, not far from Barcelona.'

'That's funny! So are we. We haven't been to Sitges before.'

'Neither have we.'

'The trouble is they eat a lot of fish in Spain, and I don't like fish.'

'Nor does my husband. I hope there are other things to eat at the hotel.'

'Yes, so do I.' (Later) 'I've been learning a bit of Spanish.'

'So have I. I bought a little phrase book.'

'So did I. I can say a few words in Spanish now.'

'Yes, so can I. But I don't like speaking foreign languages.'

'Neither do I. You feel so stupid, don't you.'

'Oops! It's a bumpy flight. I'll be glad when we get there.'

'So will !!'

- When we want to say that we do the same or feel the same as someone else, we can use the short answer *So* + auxiliary verb + subject after positive statements. We're going to Sitges. - **So are we**. (= We're going to Sitges too.)
- After negative statements we use Neither or Nor + auxiliary verb + subject. I don't like speaking foreign languages.

- Neither do I. OR Nor do I. (= I feel like you. I don't like it.)

I don't like fish. - Nor/Neither does my husband.

(= My husband's the same as you. He doesn't like fish.)

 The auxiliary verb in the short answer will be a form of the verbs be or have, or a modal verb (can, could, will, etc.)

We're going to Sitges. - So are we.

I've been learning a bit of Spanish. - So have I.

I'll be glad when we get there. - So will I.

 When the present simple or the past simple is used in the first statement, we use do, does or did.

I don't like speaking foreign languages. - Neither do I

I bought a little phrase book. - So did I.

Note the word order.

So/Neither/Nor + auxiliary verb + subject

So

can

Neither does my husband.

• We can replace the So construction with too and the Neither/Nor construction with a negative auxiliary + either.

We're going to Sitges. - So are we. OR We are too.

I don't like speaking foreign languages. – Neither do I. or I don't either.

ECK QUESTIONS 2

Respond with So ... I or Neither/Nor ... I.

- 1 I usually go to Spain for my holiday. 2 I went there last year.
- 3 But I've never been to Sitges before. 4 I don't like flying.

- ANSWERS TO 1 11hope so. 21hope not. 31don't expect so./I expect not.
- 2 1 So do I. 2 So did I. 3 Neither/Nor have I. 4 Neither/Nor do I.

Auxiliary verbs used alone: Will you come? – I might

Amy Masters works for a market research organisation. She's interviewing people in the street.

A: Excuse me, sir. I'm doing a survey of people's reading habits. Could you answer a few questions, please?

B: I could, if it doesn't take too long. What are the questions?

A: Do you read much?

B: No. I should, I suppose, but I never have time. I would if I had more time.

A: So you aren't reading a book at the moment?

B: I'm not, no. But my wife is. She reads a lot. (Later)

A: Excuse me, madam. Have you got time to answer a few guestions?

C: No, I haven't. I'm in a hurry, I'm afraid, so I can't. But my friend here isn't. You could ask her. I'm not really interested in books, but she is.

Step 1

Single auxiliary verbs used alone

• We often use an auxiliary verb (*be, have, might, would, can*, etc.) alone, without the main verb. We do this when we don't want to repeat the main verb.

Could you answer a few questions, please?

−I could, *if it doesn't take too long*. (= I could answer)

So you aren't reading a book at the moment?

- I'm not, no. But my wife is.

(= I'm not reading. My wife is reading.)

• The verb *be* can also be used alone when it's a main verb.

Have you got time to answer some questions?

-I'm in a hurry, I'm afraid, but my friend here isn't.

(= My friend isn't in a hurry.)

I'm not really interested in books, but she is.

(= She's interested in books.)

- The auxiliary verb is used alone in yes/no short answers.
 Have you got time to answer some questions? No, I haven't.
 Do you read much? No, I don't. (For do see Step 3.)
 Is your wife reading a book at the moment? Yes, she is.
- We use the full form of auxiliaries when they're affirmative. *I'm not, but my wife is.* (NOT my wife's) *I would if I had more time.* (NOT I'd)
- The auxiliary verb(s) in the answer can be different from the one(s) in the question.

Do you read much? – No. I **should**, I suppose. (= I should read, but ...) I **would** if I had more time. (= I would read.)

CHECK OUESTIONS

Rewrite the sentences, avoiding repetition.

- 1 The first person can answer her questions, but the second one can't answer her questions.
- 2 Could you answer a few questions? I might answer. It depends.
- 3 Her friend isn't in a hurry, but she's in a hurry.

Step 2

Two auxiliary verbs

- A: Where did you get the book you're reading at the moment?
- D: I borrowed it from the library.
- A: Would you have bought it, if it hadn't been in the library?
- D: I would if it hadn't been so expensive.
- A: How many books have you read this year? Twenty?
- D: I might have. I can't remember.
- When there are two auxiliary verbs, we usually repeat only the first. Would you have bought it, if it hadn't been in the library?
 - I would if it hadn't been so expensive. (NOT I would have)
- But if the verb form changes (for example: *have* changes to *might have*), we use two auxiliaries in the answer.

How many books have you read this year? Twenty?

- I might have. (NOT I might.) = I might have read twenty.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the sentences, avoiding repetition.

- 1 Would you have bought the book if it had been cheaper? Yes, I would have bought the book.
- 2 He bought the book, but if it had been in the library, he wouldn't have bought it.

Step 3

The use of the verb do

Amy Masters is interviewing a middle-aged woman and her husband.

- A: What kind of books do you and your husband read?
- E: Well, I like thrillers. My husband doesn't. He reads historical novels. He reads a lot more than I do.
- A: When did you last go to a bookshop?
- E: About three days ago. Well, I did. My husband didn't. He stayed outside because I was looking for a surprise birthday present for him.
- When the main verb is in the present simple or the past simple, we use the verb do to avoid repeating the main verb.

I like thrillers. My husband doesn't. (= He doesn't like thrillers.)

He **reads** a lot more than I **do**. (= more than I read)

Did you go into the bookshop? - I did. My husband didn't.

(= I went into the bookshop. My husband didn't go into the bookshop.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite the sentences, avoiding repetition.

- 1 Her husband doesn't like thrillers, but she likes thrillers.
- 2 He reads historical novels, but she doesn't read historical novels.
- 3 She talked a lot, but her husband didn't talk a lot.

Amy's now talking to a strange old man.

F: I don't really like books.

A: Don't vou?

F: No. But I read a good book once.

A: Did you? What was it?

F: It was a book about bees.

A: Was it? That sounds interesting.

F: Yes, it was. You see, these bees could kill.

A: Could they?

F: Yes. But I didn't finish the book.

A: Didn't vou?

F: No. And I haven't read a book since then.

A: Haven't you? Why not?

F: Too many pages. I can't read more than 20 pages.

A: Can't you? Why not?

F: I always fall asleep after 20 pages.

A: Do you?

F: And then I forget what I've read, so I have to start the book again.

- We often reply to what someone says by using a short question with an auxiliary verb. We use it to show polite interest or surprise. It means Really? or Is that true? *They could kill.* – *Could they?* (or *Really?*)
- We use *do/don't/does/doesn't* in reply questions after a statement in the present simple.

I always **fall** asleep after 20 pages. - **Do** you?

I don't really like books. - Don't you?

• We use *did/didn't* after a statement in the past simple.

I read a good book once. - Did you?

I didn't finish the book. – Didn't you?

If the statement has an auxiliary verb, we repeat the verb in the reply question.

I haven't read a book since then. - Haven't you?

If the statement has the verb be, used as a main verb, we repeat it in the reply question.

It was about bees. - Was it?

- We use a positive reply question after a positive statement. I read a good book once. – Did you?
- We use a negative reply question after a negative statement. I can't read more than 20 pages. - Can't you?

(For question tags You're tired, aren't you? see Unit 21.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Add a reply question.

- 1 Amy has worked for the company for ten years. ...?
- 2 She's very interested in her work. ...?
- 3 Yesterday she interviewed over fifty people. ...?
- 4 Several people wouldn't answer her questions. ...?

CHECK QUESTIONS

- ANSWERS TO 1 1 but the second one can't. 2 I might. It depends. 3 but she is.
- 1, 2, 3 AND 4 2 1 Yes, I would. 2 he wouldn't have.
- 3 1 but she does. 2 but she doesn't. 3 but her husband didn't.
- 1 Has she? 2 Is she? 3 Did she? 4 Wouldn't they?

Hannah Willis is studying languages in London. She's having an interview for a job as a tourist guide.

'Miss Willis, how many languages can you speak?'

'I can speak Spanish, Italian and German. I'd like to be able to speak a bit of Japanese, but they don't teach it at my college.'

'That's a pity, because we get a lot of Japanese visitors in London. We need people who can speak Japanese, but we haven't been able to find any. But this summer there'll be a lot of German and Spanish visitors too, so you'll be able to use your Spanish and German. Can you start work in May?'

'No, I'm afraid I can't. I can't miss college. I won't be able to start until the end of term in June.'

Step 1

Can and be able to

• We use can/can't (= cannot) + an infinitive without to to talk about someone's ability or inability to do something.

I can speak Spanish. (= I know how to speak Spanish.)

I can't speak Japanese. (= I don't have the ability to speak Japanese.)

• We also use can/can't (= cannot) + an infinitive without to when we talk about what is possible or impossible.

Can you start work in May? (= Is it possible for you to start in May?) I can't miss college. (= It isn't possible for me to miss college.)

- *Can* and *can't* have the same form for all persons. (*I can, he can, we can,* etc.)
- In the present it's often possible to use *be able to* or *can*, but *be able to* is more formal and a lot less common.

How many languages can you speak?

(How many languages are you able to speak? is very formal.)

• But because *can* has no infinitive form or present perfect form, we have to use forms of *be able to* here.

I'd like **to be able to** speak a bit of Japanese. (infinitive) We **haven't been able to** find any. (present perfect)

• When we talk about the future we can normally use can or will/won't be able to. But if it's important to emphasise the future time, we use will/won't be able to.

Can you start work in May? (OR Will you be able to start work in May?)

I won't be able to start until June. (OR I can't start until June.)

You'll be able to use your Spanish and German.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Write the sentences using a different verb.

- 1 Is Hannah able to speak Japanese? ... Hannah speak Japanese?
- 2 She isn't able to start work immediately. She ... immediately.
- 3 She can't start work in May. She ...
- 4 She can start work at the end of term. She ...

Hannah finished college on June 13th and she was able to start work the next day. She took a group of Germans round London. Most of them could speak English. At London Zoo one woman dropped her camera into the lions' enclosure. She could see the camera, but she couldn't reach it. Fortunately a keeper was able to reach it with a fishing net. Later, Hannah's group was in St Paul's Cathedral. One man started to play the organ. He could play very well. Hannah told him that visitors couldn't play the organ, but she couldn't persuade him to stop. Later, in a big department store in Oxford Street, two members of Hannah's group got stuck in the lift. They couldn't get out because they weren't able to open the doors. After about 30 minutes workmen managed to open them and the two Germans were able to get out.

- When we talk about the past we can use *could* or *was/were able to*.
- To talk about a general ability, we use could more often than was/were able to.
 Most of them could speak English.
 (More common than were able to speak English.)
- But, in affirmative sentences, when we talk about a particular action or situation in the past, we use *was/were able to* and not *could*.

Hannah finished college on June 13th and she **was able to** start work the next day. (NOT could start)

The two Germans were able to get out. (NOT could get out) (They got out of the lift. This was a particular action.)

• In negative sentences we can use either *couldn't* or *wasn't/weren't able to*, although *couldn't* is more common.

She **couldn't stop** the man from playing the organ. (OR She wasn't able to stop the man.)

- Note that couldn't can sometimes mean wasn't/weren't allowed to.
 She explained to him that visitors couldn't play the organ.
 (= Visitors weren't allowed to play the organ.)
- Before verbs of perception (see, hear, feel, etc.) and verbs like understand, remember we normally use could rather than was/were able to.

 She could see the camera, but she couldn't reach it.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in could/couldn't or was/wasn't/were able to.

- 1 One of Hannah's group ... play the organ very well.
- 2 The woman who dropped the camera ... reach it herself.
- 3 But the keeper ... reach it with a fishing net.
- 4 At last, after 30 minutes, the workmen ... open the lift doors.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 Can Hannah speak Japanese? 2 She can't start work immediately. 3 She won't be able to start work in May. 4 She'll be able to start work at the end of term.
- 2 1 could 2 couldn't/wasn't able to 3 was able to 4 were able to

Can, could, may, would in requests, offers and invitations

Robert: Can we have a table for two, please? And could we sit over

there by the window?

Waiter: Yes, of course.

Robert: May we have the menu? And would you take my coat?

Waiter: Certainly, sir.

Selina: Can you give us the wine list?

Waiter: Yes, here it is. ... Can I take your order now?

Robert: We're not quite ready yet. Could you give us a bit longer?

Step 1 | Can, could, may, would in requests

 We use can, could and may to ask for things or permission. Can we have a table for two? May we have the menu, please? Could we sit over there by the window?

Could is a little more polite than can.

May is more polite and formal than could and is less common.

 We also use these verbs to ask someone to do something. Can you give us the wine list? Could you give us a bit longer? Would you take my coat, please?

Could I/you? is a little more polite than Can I/you?

Would you is more polite and formal than Could you and Can you and is less common.

Note: In requests we never use *I* or *we* after *would*.

(We can't say: 'Would we have the menu?')

We must say Can we/Could we/May we have the menu?

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete these requests with can/could or would.

1 I'm hungry. (we/have) something to eat?

2 I don't understand some of the things on the menu. (you/tell me) what they are?

3 I haven't got any money. (you/lend me) some?

Step 2

Can, could, may to ask for and to give permission

Selina: Can I smoke?

Waiter: No, I'm afraid you can't. This is a non-smoking section.

Robert: Can I pay by credit card?

Waiter: Yes, you can. We take Visa, but not American Express.

Robert: Ah, could I pay by cheque?

Waiter: Yes, you can, sir. Have you got a cheque card?

Robert: Yes, I have. May I use your pen, please?

Waiter: Certainly, sir.

Selina: May we use the phone to call a taxi?

Waiter: Yes, of course you can.

 We use can, could or may to ask for permission. Can I smoke? Could I pay by cheque? May we use the phone? Could is slightly more polite than can. May is more polite than could. • To give permission we normally use *can*. We can use *may*, but it's very formal and not common. We don't use *could*.

Can I pay by credit card? – Yes, you can. Could I pay by cheque? – Yes, you can, sir. To refuse permission we use can't.

Can I smoke? - No, I'm afraid you can't.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences.

- 1 ... we sit at another table? Yes, you ...
- 2 ... have an ashtray? No, ..., I'm afraid. Smoking's not allowed.
- 3 ... speak to the manager? Yes, ...

Step 3

Can and may for offers

Selina: Robert, can I pay half the bill?

Robert: No, it's all right.

Waiter: May I help you with your coat?

Selina: Oh, thank you.

• We use Can I/May I? when we offer to do something. Can I pay half the bill? – May I help you with your coat? Can I is less formal than May I and much more common.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Selina does not want Robert to pay for everything. Complete her offers.

- 1 ... pay for the tip? 2 ... pay for the taxi home?
- 3 ... buy you a drink before we go home?

Step 4

Would like in offers and invitations

Robert: The taxi isn't here yet. I rang ten minutes ago.

Waiter: Would you like me to ring again, sir?

Robert: Yes, please.

Waiter: Would you like to wait at the bar? And would you like more coffee?

Selina: Yes, that would be nice. Thank you.

- We use would like to offer something or to offer to do something. Would you like more coffee? Would you like me to ring again?
- We also use would like to invite someone to do something.
 Would you like to sit at the bar while you're waiting?
 (For would like see also Unit 43 and Unit 50.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the offers and invitations.

- 1 ... another coffee, Selina? 2 ... me to phone you tomorrow?
- 3 ... come to a party with me on Saturday?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Can we/Could we have 2 Can you/Could you/Would you tell me 3 Can you/Could you/Would you lend me
- 2 1 Can we Yes, you can. 2 May we/Can we

No, you can't 3 Could I/Can I/May I Yes, you can.

- 3 1 Can I/May I 2 Can I/May I 3 Can I/May I)
- 4 1 Would you like 2 Would you like 3 Would you like to

Must/mustn't Have to/don't have to

Driving in Britain. Advice for American drivers.

When you come to Britain, remember:

You must drive on the left.

Drivers and passengers have to wear seat-belts at all times.

You must have an international driving licence.

You have to have valid insurance.

You mustn't overtake on the left on motorways.

You mustn't drive with more than 0.45 mg of alcohol in your blood.

Step 1

Forms of *must* and *have to*

Present and future

Negative **Affirmative** I must go I mustn't (must not) go You mustn't go You must go He/she/it mustn't go He/she/it must go We must go We mustn't go You must go You mustn't go They mustn't go They must go

• *Must* is followed by the infinitive without *to*. (NOT I must to go)

• There's no final -s in the 3rd person singular. (NOT He musts go. NOT He must goes)

 Questions and negatives are formed without do. (Must you go? NOT Do you must go?)

• For the past tense of *must*, we use *had to*. (See below.)

• (For must have + past participle, see Unit 28.)

Present

I have to go I don't have to go Do I have to go? You don't have to go Do you have to go? You have to go Does he have to go? He/she/it has to go He doesn't have to go Do we have to go? We have to go We don't have to go Do you have to go? You have to go You don't have to go Do they have to go? They don't have to go They have to go **Past** I didn't have to go

I had to go

Future I'll have to go

I won't have to go

Did I have to go?

Questions

Must I go?

Must you go?

Must we go?

Must you go?

Must they go?

Must he/she/it go?

Will I have to go?

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in the correct form of the verb.

- 1 You (have to) drive on the right or the left in Britain?
- 2 An American driver in Britain (must) have valid insurance.
- 3 He also (have to) have an international driving licence.
- 4 A driver (must) drink and drive.

Step 2 Uses of must and have to

• We use *must* and *have to* to say that something is necessary or obligatory. Sometimes, it doesn't matter which we use. In the text in Step 1 both must and have to could be used in all the four affirmative sentences.

Drivers and passengers have to wear seat-belts. OR Drivers and passengers must wear seat-belts.

- For questions asking if something is necessary or obligatory, we normally use Do I, you, etc. have to? The question form Must I, you, etc.? is far less common. Do you have to have an international driving licence?
- For the negative forms, see Step 5.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer these questions.

- 1 Do you have to drive on the left or the right in Britain? You ...
- 2 When must you wear seat-belts? You ...

Step 3

Differences between must and have to

Irvine Wallace, an American, is in Britain and has hired a car. He has to wear glasses when he drives, and he's just broken them. 'I must get some new glasses. I must go to the optician's.' He's made an appointment for tomorrow morning. He's telling his wife: 'We can't go to Oxford tomorrow. I have to go to the optician's at 11 30 '

• There's sometimes a clear difference between must and have to. We use must to talk about an obligation that we impose on other people or on ourselves. It's our personal opinion. It's subjective.

I must go to the optician's. (Irvine thinks this is necessary.)

 In contrast, we normally use have to when the obligation comes from outside the speaker. It's objective, it's outside the speaker's control.

I have to go to the optician's at 11.30.

(The time of Irvine's appointment has been decided by an outsider, the optician.)

 Note that the obligation or necessity is often habitual. Irvine has to wear glasses when he drives. (This is an habitual necessity.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in must or have to/has to.

- 1 Irvine can't go to Oxford tomorrow. He's thinking: 'I ... phone the hotel to say we aren't coming.'
- 2 He's phoning the hotel: 'I'm afraid we can't come tomorrow. I ... go to the optician's here in London.'
- 3 Irvine's eyesight isn't very good. Hehave an eye-test once a year.

Step 4

Have got to

Irvine's got to take a taxi to the optician's because he can't drive his car. He's talking to the taxi driver:

'First, I've got to stop at a bank to change some travellers' cheques. Then we'll have to hurry, because I've got to get to the optician's by 11.30.'

• *Have got to* usually means the same as *have to*.

It's more informal and colloquial than *have to*, but it's used a lot in spoken English.

I've got to get to the optician's by 11.30. OR I have to get to the optician's by 11.30.

• We often use *have got to* in preference to *have to* when we're talking about a specific, not habitual, situation.

First, I've got to stop at a bank. (Rather than I have to stop at a bank.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Put in forms of have got to.

- 1 What time ... you ... be at the optician's?
- 2 I... be there at 11.30.
- 3 The taxi driver doesn't know the way to the optician's. He ... to stop to look at a map.

Step 5

Mustn't or don't have to/haven't got to?

Usually in the USA you mustn't drive at more than 55 m.p.h. It's the law. Irvine drives at this speed on the motorway in Britain. But he doesn't have to drive so slowly, because the speed limit in Britain is 70 m.p.h.

• The negative forms *mustn't* and *don't have to/haven't got to* don't mean the same. We use *mustn't* to tell people not to do something, that something is wrong or against the law.

Usually in the USA you **mustn't** drive at more than 55 m.p.h.

• But we use *don't have to* or *haven't got to* to say that there's no obligation to do something.

He doesn't have to drive so slowly. (It isn't necessary.)

Mustn't = You have no choice. You can't choose.

Don't have to/haven't got to = You have a choice. You can choose.

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Put in mustn't or don't have to.

- 1 You ... drive at more than 30 m.p.h. in towns in Britain.
- 2 On American highways you ... overtake on the left; you can overtake on the right if you want to.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

- 1 1 Do you have to drive 2 must have 3 has to have 4 mustn't
- 2 1 You have to/must drive on the left. 2 You have to/must wear them at all times.
- 3 11 must 21 have to 3 He has to
- 4 1 have you got to be 2 I've got to be 3 He's got to stop
- 5 1 mustn't 2 don't have to

Must, can't Must have done, can't have done

There's an area in the Atlantic called the Bermuda Triangle. A lot of boats and planes have mysteriously disappeared there. It must be a strange place. People must feel worried when they cross it. It can't be easy for them. A friend of mine is on a yacht in the Triangle at the moment. He must be feeling nervous. He can't be enjoying the trip. So, is he crazy? He must be. I wouldn't go there. Does he know the risks? He must do.

Step 1

Deductions about the present: must/can't + infinitive

• We can use *must* + infinitive without *to* when we make a logical deduction from the information or evidence we have. We use *can't* + infinitive without *to* (not *mustn't*) when we talk about a logical impossibility.

People must feel worried. (Because of the disappearances.) *It can't be easy for them.* (Because they're worried.)

- Note the continuous forms must be/can't be + -ing.
 He must be feeling nervous.
 (You're sure he's feeling nervous.)
 He can't be enjoying the trip.
 (You're sure he isn't enjoying the trip.)
- Note the short answers: Is he crazy? He must be.
 Does he know the risks? He must do.
 (For other uses of must see Unit 27.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in must or can't.

- 1 People who cross the Triangle ... be very happy about it.
- 2 They ... know about the strange disappearances.
- 3 The writer's friend ... be feeling worried at the moment.

Last July Art Fidler left Miami in his private jet to fly to Bermuda. He never arrived. He had plenty of fuel when he left, so he can't have run out of fuel. His radio can't have been working, because there was no radio contact with him. There must have been something wrong with his plane. And it must have crashed into the sea and sunk immediately, because nothing was found. Did he make a stupid mistake? He can't have done. He was an experienced pilot. Was he killed? He must have been.

• We use *must have* + past participle to say we're almost certain something happened in the past, because of the information we have. We use *can't have* (NOT *mustn't have*) + past participle to say we think something was impossible.

It must have sunk immediately.

(Nothing was found.)

He can't have run out of fuel. (Impossible. He had plenty.)

- Note the continuous forms *must/can't have been + -ing. His radio can't have been working.*
- Note the short answers.
 Did he make a mistake? He can't have done.
 Was he killed? He must have been.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in must have or can't have.

- 1 Nothing was found, so the plane ... exploded in the air.
- 2 Fidler ... felt scared.
- 3 He ... been expecting a normal flight.

May (have), might (have), could (have)

John Speight keeps snakes at home. Monty, his favourite python, has escaped. His wife's terrified.

'John, that snake may be dangerous. It may attack someone. It might eat the cat. It could be under the bed and I might not see it when I get into bed. Ugh! It could be anywhere. It might be in the garden.'

'No, it couldn't be in the garden because all the doors and windows are closed. Don't worry. I'll find it. It may be under the floorboards. I didn't feed it this morning. It may be feeling hungry. It could be looking for

'And you may not find it. We need some help. We could phone the police."

Step 1 May, might, could for present and future possibility

• We can use may, might or could + an infinitive without to when we want to say that something is possible (in the present or the future). There is no significant difference between them.

It may attack someone. (= It's possible it'll attack someone.)

It **might eat** the cat. (= It's possible it'll eat the cat.)

It **could be** under the bed. (= It's possible it's under the bed.)

- But we use *could*, not *may* or *might*, to make suggestions. We **could** phone the police. (= Shall we phone the police?)
- We use the negative forms may not or might not (or mightn't) to talk about possibility, but not couldn't.

I might not see it when I get into bed. (= It's possible I won't see it.)

Couldn't means that something is totally impossible.

It couldn't be in the garden. (= That's not possible.)

• We often use the continuous form: may be, might be, could be + -ing to talk about a present possibility.

It may be feeling hungry. (= It's possible it's feeling hungry.) *It could be looking for food.* (= It's possible it's looking for food.)

• May, might, could have the same form for all persons. I may/might/could come. He may/might/could come, etc. (For *could*, see also Unit 25.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Rewrite these sentences.

- 1 Perhaps the snake will attack someone. The snake ...
- 2 Perhaps it's under the floorboards. It ...
- 3 It's possible John won't find it. He ...
- 4 Perhaps the snake's hiding in a cupboard. The snake ...
- 5 It isn't possible that it's in this cupboard. It ...

May have, might have, could have for past possibility May as well/might as well

A police officer has come to talk to John about his snake.

'Have you any idea where the snake may have gone?'

'It might have gone under the floorboards. It may have fallen asleep somewhere in the house. It could have gone down the toilet.'

'Could someone have stolen it?'

'No. A thief couldn't have got into the house. I was here all the time.' 'How did it escape?'

'I found the cover of its tank on the floor. I might not have put it on. I might have forgotten. I can't remember. The snake may have moved it itself. It may have been feeling hungry. It might have been looking for food. I could have given it some this morning, but it didn't seem hungry.' 'Are you sure you've looked under all the beds?'

'Yes, I think so.'

'Well, we may as well look again, just in case.'

'I suppose you're right. We might as well.'

'Wait a minute. That plant over there ... It's moving.'

• We can use either *may have*, *might have* or *could have* + a past participle to say that something was possible in the past.

It may have fallen asleep. (= It's possible it's fallen asleep.)
It might have gone under the floorboards. (= That's possible.)
It could have gone down the toilet. (= That's possible.)

- *Could have* can also mean that something was possible, but didn't happen. *I could have given it some food this morning.* (He didn't give it any food.)
- Note the negative forms: may not have/might not(n't) have.
 I might not have put the cover on. (= It's possible I didn't.)
- *Couldn't have* means that something was totally impossible. *A thief couldn't have got into the house.* (= It wasn't possible.)
- We often use the continuous form: *may have been, might have been, could have been + -ing* to talk about a past possibility.

It may have been feeling hungry. (= It's possible it was feeling hungry.)

• Note the expressions *may as well* and *might as well* which mean the same. We use them when we suggest doing something because it seems the only sensible thing to do, but we aren't very enthusiastic.

We may as well look again. (= There's nothing better to do.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the sentences.

- 1 Perhaps the snake went under the floorboards. The snake ...
- 2 Perhaps the snake was feeling hungry. The snake ...
- 3 It was possible for John to feed it, but he didn't. John ...
- 4 Perhaps it hasn't gone very far. It ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 The snake may/might/could attack someone. 2 It may/might/could be under the floorboards. 3 John may not/might not find it. 4 The snake may/might/could be hiding in a cupboard. 5 It couldn't be in this cupboard.
- 2 1 The snake may have/might have/could have gone under the floorboards. 2 The snake may have/might have/could have been feeling hungry. 3 John could have fed it, but he didn't. 4 It may not have/might not have/mightn't have gone very far.

30

Should/ought to, had better Should have/ought to have

There's too much traffic on British roads. People have different opinions.

- We ought to make petrol more expensive.
- We shouldn't make so many cars.
- People should pay to use the roads.
- We oughtn't to allow cars in city centres.

Step 1

The main use of should/ought to

• We use *should* + infinitive without *to* or *ought to* + infinitive when we think something is the right thing to do.

People should pay to use the roads = People ought to pay.

• We use *shouldn't* (should not) or *oughtn't to* (ought not to) when we think something isn't a good idea.

We shouldn't make so many cars = We oughtn't to make.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in should(n't) or ought(n't) to.

- 1 We ... build more roads. That will only make the problem worse.
- 2 We build more railways. I think that's the best answer.

Step 2

Should and ought to + be + -ing

Sam Travis is in his car. The police have stopped him. 'Excuse me, sir. You should be wearing your seat-belt. And your back lights aren't working. You oughtn't to be driving this car.'

• We use should(n't)/ought(n't) to + be + -ing to talk about something that should(n't) be in progress now.

You should be wearing your seat-belt. You oughtn't to be driving this car.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in should(n't) or ought(n't) to.

- 1 Is Sam wearing his seat-belt? No, but he ...it.
- 2 Are his back lights working? No, so he ... his car.

Step 3

Other uses of should/ought to

Sam's going to a football match at 7.30. He's telling his wife about it. 'England should win tonight. Scotland aren't very good this year.' 'Are you going to the match by train?' 'Yes. If I get a train at 6 p.m., I shouldn't be late. I ought to be there by 7. Or do you think I should catch an earlier train?' 'Yes, I think you should.'

• We use should and ought to when we talk about how probable something is, or what we expect to happen in the future.

England **should** win.

(Sam expects this, because Scotland aren't very good.) I shouldn't be late. I ought to be there by 7 p.m. (This is probable if he catches a train at 6 p.m.)

• Note the use of *should/ought to* without a main verb. Do you think I **should** catch an earlier train? Yes, I think you should. (OR Yes, I think you ought to.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3 Put in should(n't)/ought(n't) to.

- 1 If the train's on time, Sam be late.
- 2 His wife thinks he catch an earlier train.

Step 4

Had better + infinitive without to

'Sam! You're going to miss your train. You'd better hurry. It's ten to six!' 'What! I'll never catch that train now. I'd better go by car.' 'Yes, you'd better. But wait a minute. The lights don't work. Perhaps you'd better not take the car.'

• We use had better ('d better) + infinitive without to to say that something is the right thing to do. We use it with *I* and *we* to talk about an immediate intention.

I'd better go by car.

We use it with you or he, she, it, they when we're giving advice or a warning about the present or the immediate future.

You'd better hurry.

- Note the negative form *had* ('d) *better not*. You'd better not take the car.
- Note the use of *had better (not)* without a main verb. I'd better go by car. Yes, you'd better.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Put in had better (not).

- 1 Your car lights don't work, Sam. ... fix them.
- 2 You ... drive without lights.

Sam decided to take the car. On his way home he was eating a hamburger. He hit the car in front. He's telling his wife what happened. 'There was too much traffic! I shouldn't have taken the car. I ought to have gone by train.'

'Well, it's your fault. You ought to have listened to me. You should have left home earlier. And you oughtn't to have been eating a hamburger in the car. You should have been watching the road.'

• We use *should have* or *ought to have* + a past participle to say that something in the past was a mistake.

I shouldn't have taken the car. (But he took it. It was a mistake.) *I ought to have gone* by train. (But he didn't go by train.)

• We use should(n't) have or ought(n't) to have + been + -ing when we talk about something that should(n't) have been in progress at a particular moment in the past.

You should have been watching the road.

(But he wasn't watching the road.)

You oughtn't to have been eating a hamburger.

(But he was eating a hamburger.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Put in should(n't) have or ought(n't) to have.

- 1 Sam took the car. That was a mistake. He it.
- 2~ He didn't listen to his wife. That was a mistake. He \dots to her.
- 3 He wasn't watching the road. That was a mistake. He the road.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

- 1 1 shouldn't/oughtn't to 2 should/ought to
- 2 1 should be/ought to be wearing 2 shouldn't be/oughtn't to be driving
- 3 1 shouldn't/oughtn't to 2 should/ought to
- 4 1 You'd better 2 You'd better not
- 5 1 shouldn't have/oughtn't to have taken 2 should have/ought to have listened 3 should have been/ought to have been watching

Have got/have

Marie Thomas hasn't got many friends so she put an advertisement in the Personal column of a local newspaper. She received this reply. Dear Marie,

First the good news. I've got blue eyes and I've got brown hair. I've got a flat and I've got a job. But I haven't got a girlfriend!

Now for the bad news. I've got big ears and I haven't got much hair left. I've got asthma too. I used to have a good job, but I lost it. The job I've had for the last year is badly paid. I had a car a month ago, but I haven't got one now. I didn't have enough money, so I sold it. My flat's very small - it's only got one bedroom, and it hasn't got a very big kitchen ...

Step 1

Uses of have got

• *Have got* and *have* mean the same. But in informal English we normally use *have got* rather than *have* when we talk about:

Possessions: I've got a flat. It's only got one bedroom.

Relatives: I haven't got a girlfriend.

Illnesses: *I've got* asthma. (*I've got* a headache, a cold, a bad back, etc.)

Personal characteristics: I've got blue eyes and brown hair.

- We could use *have* in all the above examples. But *have got* is far more common. I have a flat. It only has one bedroom. I don't have a girlfriend.
- In American English we use the affirmative forms of *have got*, but we rarely use the negative or question forms.

British English: Have you got a car? I haven't got a car.
American English: Do you have a car? I don't have a car.

• The forms of *have got* **Present simple:**

Affirmative **Ouestion Negative** I've got I haven't got Have I got? He's got He hasn't got Has he got? They've got They haven't got Have they got? etc. **Contracted forms:** 's got = has got hasn't got = has not got 've got = have got haven't got = have not got

• Note the short answers: *Yes, I have/Yes, he has/No, they haven't*, etc. (NOT Yes, I've got/Yes, he's got/No, they haven't got)

Has he got a girlfriend? **No, he hasn't.** (NOT No, he hasn't got)

• In the past simple we can use either *had/didn't have* or *had got/hadn't got* but *had/didn't have* is more common.

I had a car a month ago. (NOT I'd got a car a month ago.)

• In other tenses (present perfect, past perfect, future, etc.) and forms (the infinitive) only *have* (NOT have got) is possible.

The job I've had for the last year. (NOT The job I've had got.)

I used to have a good job. (NOT I used to have got.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in forms of have got.

- 1 ... Marie ... many friends? No ...
- 2 She ... a boyfriend last year, but she ... not ... one now.
- 3 Her girlfriends ... all ... husbands and children.

... I haven't got any bad habits although, I must admit, I usually have dinner in front of the television and I sometimes have a cigarette afterwards. And I don't have a bath every day!

At weekends I often have a long walk in the country. Then I have a meal in a country pub. Once a year I have a holiday on the south coast. But I'm not having one this year because I haven't got enough money. I'd really like to meet you. Perhaps we can have dinner together soon.

Best wishes, Raymond

PS I could meet you any evening next week except for Thursday. That evening I'm having a game of badminton with a friend. And then we're having a drink together afterwards.

- We use *have* (NOT have got) to talk about actions/activities. *I have dinner* in front of the television. (NOT I've got dinner) *I have a holiday* on the south coast. (NOT I've got a holiday)
- When we use *have* like this, we can use continuous forms because we're describing actions.

I'm not having a holiday this year.
We're having a drink together afterwards.

- Note the negative and question forms in the present simple.
 I don't have a bath every day.
 Does he have a holiday every year?
- We don't use contractions with have when it's describing an action.
 I have a cigarette afterwards. (NOT I've a cigarette)
- Look at this list of further examples of *have* used for actions. have breakfast, dinner, a drink, a sandwich, etc. have a bath, a shower, a wash, a shave, a sauna, etc. have a rest, a sleep, a dream, etc. have a holiday, a nice time, a day off, etc. have a swim, a game, a walk, a ride, etc. have an argument, a talk, a discussion, a meeting, etc. have a go, a try, etc. have a baby have a look have a lesson

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in forms of have.

- 1 Raymond (not have) a shower in the morning. He usually (have) a bath.
- 2 He (have) his breakfast at the moment.
- 3 he (have) a holiday in July? Yes normally, but he (not have) a holiday this year.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 Has Marie got many friends? No, she hasn't. 2 She had a boyfriend last year, but she hasn't got one now. 3 Her girlfriends have all got husbands and children.
- 2 1 Raymond doesn't have a shower in the morning. He usually has a bath. 2 He's having his breakfast at the moment. 3 Does he have a holiday in July? ... he isn't/he's not having a holiday this year.

Phrasal verbs: He took off his coat

Monday, February 3rd

A bad day! I woke up with a headache. I got up late. I turned on the radio. The news was bad, so I turned off the radio and had a shower. The water was cold. Then I went out for a walk. It was raining.

Step 1

What are phrasal verbs?

- Phrasal verbs are usually two-word verbs (a verb + an adverbial particle): *wake up*, *go out, turn on*, etc.
- We can use different particles with the same verb. The particle changes the meaning of the verb.

I turned on the radio. I turned off the radio.

• Phrasal verbs are very common, especially in informal English. We could say *I awoke with a headache*, but this is very formal. We normally say: *I woke up with a headache*.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

What are the five phrasal verbs?

I sat down, had breakfast, washed up and set off for work. When I went out, it was still raining. It went on raining all day.

Step 2

Different types of phrasal verb

Tuesday, February 4th

The car broke down. I rang up a garage. The mechanic found out why I'd stopped – I'd run out of petrol!

I don't get on with the people at work, so today I filled in an application form for a new job. I put it down somewhere in the office. Now I can't find it!

At home I switched on the TV. Cigarette prices are going up. I must give up smoking. And the government's planning to put up taxes. I'm not looking forward to that. They've already put them up twice this year. I've just worked out that I'll soon have no money. I can't go on like this.

• Some phrasal verbs never take an object.

The car broke down. I can't go on like this. Prices are going up.

• Most phrasal verbs can take an object. The object can usually go before or after the particle.

verb + particle + object verb object particle I rang up a garage. OR I rang a garage up. the TV. I switched on I switched the TV on.

- But if the object is long, it usually goes after the particle. *I filled in an application form*. (NOT I filled an application form in.)
- If the object is a pronoun the construction is always:

verb+pronoun+particleI putitdown(NOT I put down it.)They've putthemup(NOT They've put up them.)

• Some phrasal verbs are three-word verbs with a particle + a preposition. The object can only come after the preposition.

I don't get **on with** the people at work.

I'd run out of petrol. I'm not looking forward to that.

• (For a list of phrasal verbs see Appendix 4.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Are these right or wrong?

- 1 They're going to put taxes up.
- 2 They're going to put up taxes.
- 3 They shouldn't put up them.
- 4 I'm not looking it forward to.

Look, feel, etc. + adjective or like/as if

Justin Cox works at an advertising agency. He's writing a TV commercial for a new product called Vitamax.

'You seem depressed. What's the problem?'

'I just feel tired all the time. When I see my face in the mirror, I look terrible. Food doesn't taste good any more. I've got no appetite.'

'Try Vitamax, the drink with five essential vitamins. It will change your life."

'That sounds interesting. I'll try it. Mmm! It smells good. And it tastes good too!'

(3 days later. She's walking around singing.)

'Well, you sound happy!'

'I feel happy! And all my friends say I look great. Thanks to Vitamax!'

Step 1

look, feel, sound, taste, smell, seem + adjective

• We use these verbs to talk about our impression of things. We use an adjective after them, not an adverb.

I look terrible. (NOT terribly) *Food doesn't taste good*. (NOT well)

We use *look* to talk about visual appearance.

I look terrible. (= When she sees her face in the mirror, that's her impression.) We use *sound* to talk about things that we hear.

That sounds interesting. (= What you said seems interesting.)

• Seem is never used in the continuous form.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1 Answer the questions.

- 1 Before she takes Vitamax how does she feel all the time?
- 2 But 3 days later, how does she sound? 3 And how does she look?

Step 2 | look, feel, sound, taste, smell, seem + like

Justin Cox is writing an advertisement for a new non-alcoholic beer called Old Gold.

'It looks like beer. It smells like beer. It tastes like beer. And when you drink it, it feels like liquid gold in your mouth. Why not have a glass of Old Gold?'

'That seems like a great idea. Cheers!'

• We use *like* + a noun after these verbs to describe what someone or something is similar to.

It smells like beer. It feels like liquid gold.

When we use these verbs to describe what something is like, we usually use the present simple (not the present continuous).

It looks good. It looks like beer. (NOT It's looking)

Note: We use *like* to make a comparison, but we use *taste*, *smell* + *of* when there is a particular smell or taste on something.

This glass tastes of lipstick. My shirt smells of beer.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer the questions.

1 What does Old Gold look like? 2 What does it feel like in your mouth?

Step 3

Look, feel, sound, seem + as if/as though

Justin's writing a TV commercial for British Telecom's new Helpline.

• 'The washing machine isn't working. Who can I phone on a Sunday?' It doesn't sound as if she can repair it herself. She sounds as though she needs help. She needs Helpline on 0800 56 56 56.

• Here's Mr Thorpe. He's missed his last bus home. He can't find a taxi. It looks as though he'll have to walk home. Wait a minute. He can use the telephone. But now he looks as if he's got another problem. He hasn't got any change! Don't panic, Mr Thorpe. You can call Helpline free.

• 'Oh, I feel terrible. It feels as though the whole room's going round and round. I feel as if I'm going to faint. The doctor. I must phone the doctor. Oh no, I've forgotten his number.'
When it seems as if there's no one who can help you, call Helpline, a

number you won't forget.

• We can use *as if/as though* + a subject and a verb after these verbs to describe our impressions. *As if* and *as though* mean the same.

She sounds **as though** she needs help. (= She sounds **as if** she needs help.)

We often use the impersonal it with these verbs, with the meaning 'it seems'.
 It looks as though he'll have to walk home. (= It seems as though ...)
 It feels as though the room is going round and round.

It doesn't sound as if she can repair it herself.

Note: In informal English we often use *like* instead of as *if/as though*. In American English *like* is frequently used.

It doesn't sound like she can repair it herself.

(= It doesn't sound as if she can repair it herself.)

It looks like he'll have to walk home.

(= It looks as though he'll have to walk home.)

It feels like the room's going round and round.

(= It feels as though the room's going round and round.)

When it seems like there's no one who can help you ...

(= When it seems **as if** there's no one who can help you ...)

(For *like* and *as* and other uses of *as if/as though* see Unit 89.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite these sentences, using as if/as though.

- 1 She sounds in need of help. She ...
- 2 He'll probably have to walk home. It ...
- 3 I think I'm going to faint.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 2 AND 3

- 1 1 She feels tired. 2 She sounds happy. 3 She looks great.
- 1, 2 AND 3 2 1 It looks like beer. 2 It feels like liquid gold.
- 3 1 She sounds as if/as though she needs help (OR she's in need of help). 2 It looks as if/as though he'll have to walk home. 3 I feel as if/as though I'm going to faint.

Harry Titmus (68) used to collect golf balls. He used to walk with his dog every day on the local golf course, and his dog used to find a lot of balls. Harry took them home and put them in boxes, then in drawers, then in cupboards. 'I didn't use to play with them,' Mr Titmus commented, 'although I used to be quite a good player, when I was younger. I simply used to enjoy counting them. But when I'd collected 15,389 there were no more drawers and no more cupboards left, so I used to put them in the bath. My wife didn't use to like that.'

Step 1

The forms of used to

Affirmative: *used to* + infinitive Negative: *didn't use to* + infinitive Questions: *did* + subject + *use to* + infinitive

Affirmative
I used to go
You used to go
He used to go
She used to go
It used to go
We used to go
You used to go
They used to go

Negative
I didn't use to go
You didn't use to go
He didn't use to go
She didn't use to go
It didn't use to go
We didn't use to go
You didn't use to go
They didn't use to go

Question
Did I use to go?
Did you use to go?
Did he use to go?
Did she use to go?
Did it use to go?
Did we use to go?
Did you use to go?
Did you use to go?
Did they use to go?

• Note the final -*d* in the affirmative (*used to*).

Harry used to collect golf balls. (NOT Harry use to collect)

But note that there's no final -d in the negative and question forms (didn't use to/did he use to?).

I didn't **use** to play with them. (NOT I didn't used to play with them.) Where did he **use** to put them? (NOT Where did he used to?)

Note the short answers.
 Do you collect golf balls, Harry? No, but I used to.
 Do you wear glasses now, Harry? Yes, but I didn't use to.

• Note that the -s- in *used to* is pronounced [s], *to* in *used to* is pronounced [tə] before a consonant and [tu:] before a vowel sound.

I used to [tə] be ... I used to [tu:] enjoy ...

• We use the negative form ... never used to for emphasis:

I never used to play with them is a stronger version of I didn't use to play with them.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Write three sentences with use(d) to.

- 1 (affirmative) His wife/find golf balls in the bath
- 2 (negative) She/play golf
- 3 (question) Why/Harry/collect golf balls?

Step 2 Used to to describe regular actions in the past

• We use *used to* to talk about a habit or regular activity in the past that doesn't happen now. Used to emphasises that the activity was repeated many times.

He used to collect golf balls.

His dog used to find a lot of balls.

If we use the past simple here, the idea that the action happened many times isn't emphasised.

He collected golf balls. His dog found a lot of balls.

Note: If we describe a number of regular activities in the past, it isn't necessary to repeat used to each time. We can use the past simple instead.

Harry **took** them home and **put** them in boxes.

(= Harry used to take them home and he used to put them in boxes.)

• We can also use would + infinitive without to to talk about past habits. When we use would, we usually say when or how often the action happened.

He **used to walk** with his dog on the local golf course.

OR He would walk with his dog every day on the local golf course.

Note: Would is generally more formal and less common.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer these questions with either Yes or No.

- 1 Does Harry collect golf balls now?
- 2 Did he regularly look for golf balls in the past?
- 3 Does he still put golf balls in the bath?
- 4 Did his dog often find balls for him?

Step 3

Used to to describe situations in the past

• We also use used to to talk about situations in the past which don't exist now. Harry **used to** be quite a good player.

All the drawers in the house used to be full of golf balls.

Note: We don't use would when we talk about a past situation. We can't say: 'Harry would be quite a good player.'

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Answer these questions with Yes or No.

- 1 Is Harry a good player now?
- 2 Was he quite a good player when he was younger?
- 3 Are the drawers full of golf balls now?
- 4 Were the drawers full of golf balls at one time in the past?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

1 1 His wife used to find golf balls in the bath. 2 She didn't use to play golf. 3 Why did Harry 3 1 No. 2 Yes. 3 No. 4 Yes. use to collect golf balls?

2 1 No. 2 Yes. 3 No. 4 Yes.

Dimitri Poulos, a Greek student, has come to London to learn more English. At first things were very strange. English money was a problem at first, but now he's got used to it. English food is different from Greek food, but he's getting used to it, slowly! He's also getting used to speaking English all the time. But he hasn't got used to the traffic in England. He hasn't got used to looking right before he crosses the road. That's still a problem.

Step 1

to get used to + a noun/pronoun or + - ing

• We use *get used to something* or *get used to doing something* when we talk about the process of becoming accustomed to something. Something that was strange and unfamiliar, at first, becomes more familiar and normal.

He's getting used to English food. (+ a noun)

(At first English food was strange, but it's becoming less strange.)

He's getting used to it. (+ a pronoun. it = English food)

He's getting used to speaking English. (+ the -ing form)

(When he speaks English, he now finds it easier than before.)

He's (has) got used to English money.

(The process of understanding English money has finished. Now it isn't strange.)

• Note the forms of get used to.

Affirmative	Negative	Question
Present continuous	3	
I'm getting used to	I'm not getting used to	Am I getting used to?
He's getting used to	He isn't getting used to	Is he getting used to?
Present perfect		
He's got used to	He hasn't got used to	Has he got used to?
Past simple		_
He got used to	He didn't get used to	Did he get used to?
Future		
He'll get used to	He won't get used to	Will he get used to?

• We don't use an infinitive after *get used to*. *To* here is a preposition, so it is followed by the *-ing* form of the verb.

He's getting used to **speaking** English all the time. (NOT He's getting used to speak English all the time.)

• *Used* is pronounced /ju:st/.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in forms of get used to.

- 1 Dimitri hasn't ... English food yet.
- 2 English money was a problem, but after a few days he ... it.
- 3 Slowly he ... (live) in London.

Dimitri has been in England for six weeks now, and he's used to a lot of things that were strange at first. He's used to speaking English all the time. He's used to the English weather. Traffic in England doesn't worry him any more - now he's used to looking right before he crosses the road. But there are some things he still isn't used to. He isn't used to having milk in his tea and coffee and he's not used to drinking instant coffee. And he isn't used to swimming in a cold sea.

• We use be used to + a noun or a pronoun or + the -ing form of a verb when we say that something isn't strange any more.

He's used to the English weather.

(The English weather doesn't surprise him any more.)

He's used to speaking English all the time.

(This was a problem, but it isn't now.)

He's not used to drinking instant coffee.

(In Greece he drinks 'real' coffee. So instant coffee is strange to him.)

Note the forms of be used to.

Affirmative	Negative	Question	
Present		10	
I'm used to	I'm not used to	Am I used to?	
He's used to	He isn't used to	Is he used to?	
Past simple			
He was used to	He wasn't used to	Was he used to?	
Future			
He'll be used to	He won't be used to	Will he be used to?	

 Note that we don't use an infinitive after be used to. To here is a preposition, so it is followed by the -ing form of the verb.

He's used to **speaking** English all the time. (NOT He's used to speak English all the time.)

• Compare:

A Dimitri **is used to eating** English food.

B Dimitri used to eat English food.

Note: These two sentences have completely different meanings.

A means 'Eating English food isn't strange to him any more and he often eats it

B means 'Eating English food was his habit in the past, but he doesn't eat it now.' (For the verb *used to* see Unit 34.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in forms of (not) be used to.

- 1 Dimitri's ... (hear) English now.
- 2 He still ... (drink) tea with milk in it.
- 3 The sea's warm in Greece. So he ... (swim) in a cold sea.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 Diimitri hasn't got used to English food yet. 2 English money was a problem, but after a few days he got used to it. 3 Slowly he's getting used to living in London.
- 2 1 Dimitri's used to hearing English now. 2 He still isn't used to drinking tea with milk in it. 3 he's not (he isn't) used to swimming in a cold

Nick wants to go to New York. He's in a travel agent's.

'Do I need a visa?'

'If you're British, you don't need a visa. You just need to take a passport.'

'I need to hire a car while I'm over there. Do I need an international driving licence?'

'Yes, you do, and you'll also need a credit card.'

'What about the violence and crime in New York?'

'You don't need to worry too much. You just need to be careful where you go, especially at night.'

'So I needn't buy a gun then?'

'No, you needn't.'

'If I go in September, what sort of clothes do I need to take?'
'It's warm in New York in September, so you needn't take winter clothes.'

Step 1

Uses of need

• We use *need* + noun/pronoun when we talk about the things it's necessary to have.

You'll **need** a credit card. (= It'll be necessary to have one.)

Do I need a visa? (= Is it necessary to have a visa?)

Note: *Need* has two negative forms: *don't need/doesn't need* and *needn't*. When we're talking about something that isn't necessary we use *don't need/doesn't need* + noun, not *needn't*.

You don't need a visa. (NOT You needn't a visa.)

• We use *need* + infinitive with *to* when we talk about an obligation or necessity in the present or the future.

I need to drive while I'm over there. (= That's necessary.)

You need to be careful. (= It's necessary to be careful.)

• We use *don't/doesn't need to* or *needn't* when we mean it isn't necessary to do something.

I needn't buy a gun then? OR I don't need to buy a gun.

• Note that You don't need to/You needn't mean the same as You don't have to. (See Unit 27.)

You don't need to worry too much.

OR You needn't worry too much.

(= You don't have to worry too much.)

• Needn't isn't used much in American English.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Rewrite the sentences, using need.

- 1 It's necessary for Nick to hire a car when he's in the States.
- 2 Is it necessary for him to have an international licence?
- 3 It isn't necessary for him to buy a gun.

Step 2

Forms of the verb need

Affirmative	Negative	
I need to go	I don't need to go	or I needn't go
He needs to go	He doesn't need to go	He needn't go
They need to go	They don't need to go	They needn't go
Questions		me, meean ege
Do I need to go?		
Does he need to go?		
Do they need to go?		
• The verb need has	s no continuous form. You	can't say, for example: 'You're

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in forms of the verb need.

- 1 Nick ... a visa.
- 2 But he ... a passport.

needing a passport.'

3 ... take winter clothes? No, he doesn't.

Step 3

Needn't have + past participle or didn't need to + infinitive?

Six weeks later Nick goes back to the travel agent's.

'New York was great! I needn't have worried about the crime and violence. I didn't see any.'

'So you didn't need to take a gun?'

'No, I didn't. And I needn't have had travel insurance. I was never ill and nothing was stolen. And you were right. I didn't need to take winter clothes. The temperature never went below 30°!'

• We use *needn't have* + past participle when someone did something that wasn't necessary. It was a waste of time or effort. But at the time they didn't know this.

I needn't have worried about it. (But he worried about it.) *I needn't have taken* insurance. (But he took insurance.)

• We use *didn't need to* + infinitive when it wasn't necessary to do something. But it isn't always clear if it was done or not.

I didn't need to take winter clothes.

(It wasn't necessary, but it isn't clear if he took winter clothes or not.)

- Compare I needn't have taken winter clothes.
- (= He took winter clothes, but it wasn't necessary.)

I didn't need to take winter clothes.

(= Perhaps he took them, perhaps not, but it wasn't necessary.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Add a sentence with didn't need to or needn't have.

- 1 He took \$1,000. He didn't spend it all. He ...
- 2 He took two credit cards, but he only used one. He ...
- 3 He didn't have a visa. The agent said it wasn't necessary.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Nick needs to hire a car when he's in the States. 2 Does he need an international licence? 3 He doesn't need to buy a gun. OR He needn't buy a gun.
- 2 1 doesn't need 2 needs 3 Does he need to
- 3 1 He needn't have taken £1,000 (OR so much money). 2 He needn't have taken two credit cards. 3 He didn't need to have a visa.

Verb + direct object/indirect object: *I sent him a letter*

On July 17th, 1965 Micky Nash of Finchley, north London wrote a letter to his brother, Frank. He gave it to his wife and asked her to post it for him when she went to the shops. Micky wrote his brother a letter because he needed money. He explained the problem to him. He'd just lost his job, and he wanted to buy a pram for his new baby. He wrote: 'Can you lend me £20? I'll give you the money back when I get a new job.'

On July 13th, 1995 Micky received the reply. 'I got your letter yesterday, asking for £20. I can lend it to you, but nowadays I think a pram will cost you a bit more than that! And do you really need a pram for your 30-year-old son?!' Frank then went to the post office and showed them the letter. They promised him an official apology.

Step 1

Verb + indirect object + direct object

• Some verbs can have two objects, an indirect object and a direct object. Normally the indirect object refers to a person, and comes first.

verb + indirect object + direct object
Micky wrote his brother a letter.

(*His brother* is the person who Micky wrote to – the indirect object. *A letter* is what Micky wrote – the direct object.)

He showed them Micky's letter.

Can you lend me \$20?
I'll give you the money.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Write the correct word order.

- 1 Micky/his brother/wanted/him/to lend/some money.
- 2 He/a letter/him/sent.

Step 2

Verb + direct object + to + indirect object

• We sometimes use *to* with the indirect object, which then comes after the direct object.

verb+direct object+indirect objectMicky wrotea letterto his brother.He gaveitto his wife.

• We use *to* + the indirect object when we want to emphasise the indirect object. Compare these two sentences from the text:

A Micky wrote a letter to his brother.

B Micky wrote his brother a letter because he needed money.

In sentence A we want to say who Micky sent the letter to, so we emphasise *his brother* by saying *to his brother*.

In sentence B, we already know he's written to his brother. Now we want to say why he wrote, so we don't need to emphasise *his brother*.

• We also use *to* with the indirect object:

when both objects are pronouns (it, him, you, them, etc.).

I can lend it to you.

(In informal English we can say: *I can lend you it.* OR *I can lend it you.*) or when the direct object is a pronoun (*it, them*).

He gave it to his wife.

• We must use *to* with the verbs *describe*, *explain*, *mention*, *report*, *suggest*. *He explained the problem to him*. (NOT He explained him the problem.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences, using to.

- 1 Micky wrote the letter and (sent/his brother/it)
- 2 (He/the letter/his wife/showed) when he'd finished it.
- 3 (He/her/it/read)

Step 3

To or for?

• We often use an indirect object or *to* + an indirect object with the following verbs: *bring, give, hand, lend, offer, pass, owe, pay, read, recommend, sell, send, show, teach, tell, throw, write.*

Micky Nash wrote a letter to his brother.

We use *to*+ the indirect object when we're talking about something which passes from one person to another.

• But we use *for* + the indirect object when we're talking about doing something that will be of value to another person, or when one person does something instead of another person.

He wanted to buy a pram for his new baby.

(OR He wanted to buy his new baby a pram.)

Do you really need to get a pram for your son?!

(OR Do you really need to get your son a pram?!)

He asked her to post the letter for him when she went to the shops.

- We often use for + an indirect object with the following verbs: book, bring, build, buy, choose, cook, cut, do, fetch, find, get, keep, leave, make, order, play, prepare, reserve, save, sing, take.
- With some verbs (allow, cause, charge, cost, fine, promise, refuse, wish) we must use the indirect object on its own. We don't use to or for.

A pram will cost **you** a bit more than that!

They promised **him** an official apology.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Write complete sentences, adding either to or for.

- 1 Micky didn't post the letter himself. (his wife/him/it/posted)
- 2 Micky and his wife went to the shops (the baby/a new pram/to buy)
- 3 Frank/the letter/the post office/took
- 4 They couldn't/him/explain/why the letter had arrived so late

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Micky wanted his brother to lend him some money. 2 He sent him a letter.
- 2 1 Micky wrote the letter and sent it to his brother. 2 He showed the letter to his wife 3 He read it to her.
- 3 1 His wife posted it for him. 2 to buy a new pram for the baby. 3 Frank took the letter to the post office. 4 They couldn't explain to him why the letter had arrived so late.

If sentences: 1st and 2nd conditional

Cal and Lee are football fans. Their team, Leeds United, are playing tonight. Cal's talking about the game.

'They'll win the championship if they beat Arsenal tonight. And if they win the championship, they'll play in the European Cup next season.'

Step 1

1st conditional: If+ present simple + will

• We use *if* + a verb in the present simple to talk about a possible future action or situation. The *if* clause is often followed by another clause with *will* or *won't*.

If they **win** the championship, they'll play in the European Cup.

(Leeds may win the championship or they may not. Winning is a factual

If they **win** the championship, they'll **play** in the European Cup. (Leeds may win the championship or they may not. Winning is a factual possibility.)

- If + present simple (if clause) + future will (main clause)

 If they win the championship, they'll play in the European Cup.

 This sentence is about the future, but we don't use a verb in the future in the if clause. We don't say 'If they will win the championship.' We use a present tense, often the present simple.
- We can put the if clause at the beginning or at the end.
 They'll win the championship if they beat Arsenal tonight.
 OR If they beat Arsenal tonight, they'll win the championship.

Note: Don't confuse if and when.

If they beat Arsenal tonight, they'll win the championship. (If = a condition. We're talking about a possibility.)

When they beat Arsenal tonight, they'll win the championship. (When = a point in time. It's certain they'll beat Arsenal.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the questions.

- 1 What (happen) if ...? They'll win the championship.
- 2 What (happen) if ...? They'll play in the European Cup.

Step 2

If+ a present tense + can, should, may, might, etc.

Cal's still talking about Leeds United.

'And if they play in the European Cup, they might make a lot of money. If they make a lot of money, they can buy some new players. And if they buy new players, they should win the championship again next year ...'

• In addition to the future *will*, we can also use *can*, *could*, *should*, *ought to*, *may*, *might*, *must* in the main clause.

If they play in the Cup, they **might** make a lot of money.

(= Perhaps they'll make a lot of money.)

If they make a lot of money, they can buy new players.

(= They'll be able to buy new players.)

If they buy new players, they should win the championship again.

(= They'll probably win the championship again.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Write these sentences in a different way. Use should, can, might.

- 1 If Leeds play badly, perhaps Arsenal will win tonight. If Leeds play badly, ...
- 2 If Leeds play well, they'll probably beat Arsenal. If Leeds play well, ...
- 3 If they buy new players, they'll be able to improve the team. If they buy ...

Step 3

If + a present tense + the present simple or the imperative

'Listen, Cal, if we don't leave now, we'll miss the bus. So, if you've finished talking, can we go? Come on! If you're coming to the match, hurry up! And if you want to get in, don't forget your ticket! They don't let people in if they don't have a ticket.'

'OK, OK! I'm looking for my scarf. Leeds always win if I wear my scarf.'

• We can use the construction *If* + present simple + present simple when we're talking about something that's always true.

Present simple (main clause) *If* + present simple (*if* clause)

Leeds always win if I wear my scarf.

(= Every time I wear my scarf, Leeds win.)

They **don't let** people in if they don't have a ticket.

(= They never let people in without a ticket.)

We can use an imperative (a command) in the main clause.

imperative (main clause) If + present (if clause)

If you're coming to the match, hurry up! If you want to get in, don't forget your ticket!

Note also:

If + present perfect

If you've finished talking, can we go? (= If you've finished now.)

If + present continuous

If you're coming, *hurry up!* (= If you intend to come.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put the verb in the correct tense.

- 1 If you (want) to get into the ground, (not forget) your ticket!
- 2 If you (go) to an 'all-ticket' match, you (need) a ticket to get in.
- 3 If Cal (wear) his scarf, Leeds always (win).
- 4 Come on, Cal! If you (come) to the match, hurry up!

Step 4

2nd conditional: If + a past tense + would

Lee and Cal have missed the bus! The next bus is in 35 minutes. An old man on a bike is giving them some advice.

Old man: If I were you, I wouldn't wait for the next bus, I'd walk.

Lee: We haven't got time. If we walked, it would take us an hour to get there, and we'd miss the first 20 minutes of the game.

Cal: There wouldn't be a problem if there were more buses.

Lee: If we had a car, we'd be all right.

Cal: No, we wouldn't. If we went by car, we might not find a place to park.

Lee: If we had £30, we could get a taxi. Old man: Well, If I was going to a big match, I'd leave home much earlier. I wouldn't risk missing the bus, like you two. It's your own fault.

Lee: Cal, if we asked him nicely, we could borrow this old man's bike!

• We use if + a verb in the past simple to talk about an action or situation in the present or the future which is improbable, hypothetical or imaginary. The if clause is often followed by the conditional would or wouldn't.

If + past simple + would

If we had a car, we'd be all right. (Imaginary: They haven't got a car.)

• Note the difference between the 1st and 2nd conditional:

If we walk, it will take us an hour to get there. (1st)
(This is a factual possibility. It's an open choice. They can walk or not. See Step 1.)
But Lee says: If we walked, it would take us an hour to get there. (2nd)
(This is an unreal hypothesis, because Lee doesn't want to walk. He doesn't want to miss the beginning of the game.)

• To emphasise the improbability or the impossibility we often use *were* instead of *was*, but *was* can also be used here.

If I were you, I wouldn't wait. (OR If I was you)

- We can use *could* or *might* in the second clause.

 If we had a car, we **might not** find anywhere to park.

 (= Perhaps we wouldn't find anywhere to park.)

 If we had \$30, we **could** get a taxi.

 (= It would be possible to get a taxi.)
- If necessary, we can use the past continuous in the *if* clause. If I was going to a big match, I'd leave home much earlier.
- We form the conditional with *would* + an infinitive without *to*.

Affirmative Negative Question
I'd (would) be late I wouldn't be late
He'd be late He wouldn't be late Would he be late? Etc.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Why don't they walk? Because if ...
- 2 There aren't many buses. If ..., ... a problem.
- 3 Could they get a taxi? They could, if ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 What will happen if they beat Arsenal? 2 What will happen if they win the championship?
- 1 If Leeds play badly, Arsenal might win tonight.
 2 If Leeds play well, they should beat Arsenal.
 3 If they buy new players, they can improve the team.
- 3 1 want don't forget! 2 go need 3 wears win 4 you're coming
- 4 1 Because if they walked, it would take them an hour to get there. 2 If there were more buses, there wouldn't be a problem. 3 if they had £30.

If in past situations: 3rd conditional

On Tuesday evening, November 16th last year, David Lynch flew back to England from Tunis. In England the weather was terrible. If the weather had been good, David would have arrived home on Tuesday evening, quite normally, and his life wouldn't have changed. If it hadn't been foggy, they would have landed at London Airport. But they didn't land in London.

Step 1 | If + past perfect + would have

 We use the past perfect in the if clause to talk about something that didn't happen or a situation that didn't exist in the past.

If the weather had been good, they would have landed in London. (The weather wasn't good. It was terrible.)

We use the past conditional in the main clause.

Past conditional Past perfect they would have landed in London. If the weather **had been** good, Note: We don't use the past conditional in the if clause. We don't say 'If the weather would have been good, ...'

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

If it hadn't been foggy, they would have landed at London Airport, and David's life wouldn't have changed.

- 1 Was it foggy?
- 2 Did they land at London Airport?
- 3 Did David's life change?

Step 2

Forms of the past conditional

• The past conditional = would have + a past participle.

Questions **Negative Affirmative** Would I have won? I'd (would) have won I wouldn't have won Would he have won? He wouldn't have won He'd have won We wouldn't have won Would we have won? We'd have won Etc.

- There are two possible contracted forms: I'd have won or I would've won, etc.
- Note the pronunciation: I'd have /aidəv/ won. I would've /wodəv/ won. I wouldn't have /wudntəv/ won.

Note: had and would both have the contracted form 'd.

If he'd (= had) landed in London, he'd (= would) have got home on time.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences.

- 1 If I'd been on the plane, I (be) worried.
- 2 I (not take) the plane if it had been foggy.
- 3 If the plane had landed in London, he (get) home on time?

If the weather had been better, there wouldn't have been a problem. They could have landed in London quite easily, and it wouldn't have been necessary to fly to Scotland. If David had needed to get home that night, he could have gone back to London by train. But he decided to stay in a hotel. At the reception desk a woman dropped her pen. He picked it up for her. If he hadn't been standing there, he wouldn't have seen her. If she hadn't dropped her pen, he might not have noticed her. If he hadn't been there, someone else might have picked it up.

- We can also use *could have* and *might have* in the main clause. *If the weather had been better, they* **could have landed** *in London.* (= They would have been able to land. It would have been possible to land.) If he hadn't been there, someone else might have picked it up. (= Perhaps someone else would have picked the pen up.) (For could have and might have see also Unit 29.)
- We sometimes use the past perfect continuous (see Unit 13) in the if clause. If he hadn't been standing there, he wouldn't have seen her.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Answer the questions.

- 1 If he'd needed to get home that night, what could he have done?
- 2 What might have happened if the woman hadn't dropped her pen?

Step 4

If + past perfect + would or would be + -ing

David and Hannah, the woman he met in the hotel, are now married and living in Scotland. They often talk about their first meeting. 'If I hadn't dropped my pen, I wouldn't know you now and I wouldn't be wearing this ring."

'Yes, it's funny. If I hadn't met you, I'd still be living in London, And if someone else had picked your pen up, I wouldn't be here with you now.'

- We sometimes link the past with the present by using would or would be + ing.
- If + past perfect (past action) + would (present situation) If I hadn't dropped my pen, If I hadn't met you,
 - I wouldn't know you now.
- If + past perfect (past action) + would be + ing (present situation) I'd still be living in London now.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Make sentences with if.

- 1 He met her. He isn't living in London now.
- 2 She dropped her pen. He knows her now.
- 3 He picked her pen up. He's here with her now.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, AND 4

- 1 1 Yes, it was. 2 No, they didn't. 3 Yes, it did.
- 2 1 I'd have been worried. 2 I wouldn't have taken 3 would he have got home on time?
- 3 1 He could have gone back to London on the airline bus. 2 He might not have noticed her.
- 4 1 If he hadn't met her, he'd still be living in London now. 2 If she hadn't dropped her pen, he wouldn't know her now. 3 If he hadn't picked her pen up, he wouldn't be here with her now

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Unless, provided (that) As long as, in case

Rosanna Fisher works at an outdoor activities centre on the west coast of Scotland. She teaches mountain climbing, scuba diving and hang-gliding. She's talking to some young people who've just arrived at the centre.

'You can't do any of the activities unless you're with an instructor. We won't let you start an activity unless you have the correct equipment. You can't go scuba diving unless you've done the training course. And remember, you can't leave the centre unless you say where you're going.'

Step 1

Unless

• Unless = if ... not.

You can't leave the centre

OR
You can't leave the centre

if
You can't leave the centre

unless + affirmative verb
say where you're going.
negative verb
don't say where you're going.

• *Unless* is followed by the same tenses as *if* in the 1st and 2nd conditional (see Unit 38). It can't be followed by *will* or *would*.

We won't let you start an activity **unless you have** the correct equipment. (NOT unless you will have the correct equipment)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Rewrite these sentences using unless.

1 You can't go hang-gliding if you aren't 16 or over.

2 If you haven't got a medical certificate, you can't go scuba diving.

Step 2

As long as, provided (that)/providing (that)

Two young people are asking Rosanna if they can do certain things.

'Can I go into town this evening, Rosanna?'

'Yes, provided that you go with a friend, and as long as you get back by 10.30 p.m.'

'Will it be safe to go windsurfing this afternoon?'

'Yes. You'll be OK providing there's an instructor with you and as long as you don't go too far out to sea.'

• We use *provided/providing (that)* or *as long as* to talk about a condition. They're stronger than *if* and mean *only if.*

As long as and provided/providing (that) all mean the same and they're followed by the same tenses as *if* (in the 1st and 2nd conditional).

You can go into town, provided that you go with a friend.

(= You can go, only if you go with a friend.)

You'll be OK, **as long as** you don't go too far out to sea. (= You'll be OK, only if you don't go too far out to sea.)

• We often leave out *that* after *provided* and *providing*.

You'll be OK, **providing** there's an instructor with you.

(= You'll be OK, **providing that** there's an instructor with you.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete these sentences with as long as or provided/providing (that).

- 1 Mark can go windsurfing ... there (be) enough wind.
- 2 Emily can go into town ... (get back) late.

Step 3

In case

Rosanna's taking a group of young people into the mountains tomorrow.

'Bring a waterproof jacket with you in case it rains and an extra sweater in case it gets cold. We'll take survival bags with us in case we have to spend the night on the mountain. Last month I took a group out and we took survival bags and extra sweaters in case the weather changed. Well, it suddenly got very foggy and we were on the mountain for 48 hours. So, don't forget your survival bags in case we can't get home tonight.'

• We use *in case* to talk about the precautions we take before we do something. We use a present tense after *in case* when we talk about the future. We don't use *will*.

You'll each need a jacket in case it rains. (NOT it will rain)

(= Take a jacket as a precaution because it might rain.)

Take your survival bags in case we can't get home tonight.

(= Take them as a precaution because we might not get home.)

• In case doesn't mean the same as if. Compare:

Bring a waterproof jacket in case it starts to rain.

(= Bring a waterproof jacket when we leave, because it might start to rain later.)

Bring a waterproof jacket if it starts to rain.

(= Bring a waterproof jacket after the rain has started.)

In both sentences A happens first.

We can also use in case to talk about precautions we took in the past.
 We took survival bags and extra sweaters in case the weather changed.
 (= We took survival bags and extra sweaters because it was possible the weather would change.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in if or in case.

- 1 We should get back for dinner ... we leave now.
- 2 We'll take plenty of food with us ... we don't get back for dinner.
- 3 We'll also take some matches ... we need to light a fire.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 You can't go hang-gliding unless you're 16 or over. 2 Unless you've got a medical certificate, you can't go scuba diving.
- 2 1 Mark can go windsurfing provided/providing

(that) there's enough wind. (OR as long as)
2 Emily can go into town as long as she doesn't get back late. OR provided/providing

3 1 if 2 in case 3 in case

I wish .../If only ...

Louise, Melissa and Brad all share a flat just outside London. The two girls don't like some of Brad's habits.

'I wish Brad would stop smoking. The whole flat smells of cigarette smoke.'

'And I wish he wouldn't leave his clothes everywhere. He's so untidy.'

'And he never does any housework. If only he'd do the washing-up sometimes.'

'I sometimes wish we could persuade him to leave. If only he'd go and find another flat!'

'I wish I could just say to him 'Brad, we'd like you to leave'. But it's difficult.'

Step 1

Wish/If only + would

• We use *wish* or *If only* + *would* when we want something or someone to change or when we want someone to do something.

I wish Brad would stop smoking. (Brad smokes; they want him to stop.)

I wish he wouldn't leave his clothes everywhere.

(Brad leaves his clothes everywhere. They want him to be more tidy.)

ullet We don't use *would* after I *wish* I ... and I *wish* we We often use *could* after I and we to talk about a regret about a present or future inability.

I wish I could just say to him "Brad, we'd like you to leave."

(NOT: I wish I would just say to him ...)

I wish we could persuade him to leave.

(NOT: I wish we would persuade him to leave.)

• *I wish* ... and *If only* ... mean the same, but *If only* ... can express the wish more strongly.

If only he'd go and find another flat!

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Melissa wishes that Brad ... the washing-up occasionally.
- 2 Louise: 'Brad, I wish you ... leave your clothes everywhere.'
- 3 Melissa: 'If only we ... persuade Brad to find another flat.'

Step 2

Wish/If only + the past simple/the past continuous

Brad works in central London. He's talking to Louise and Melissa.

'I wish the flat was nearer the office. It's a long way to travel every day.'

'Yes, I bet you wish you had a nice flat in Chelsea.'

'Too expensive. I wish I was earning a lot more money.'

'Well, why don't you give up smoking, then you'd save some money?'

'I wish I didn't smoke, but I can't stop.'

'Yes, you could, if you tried.'

'You're criticising me again! If only you two were more tolerant. Sometimes I wish I lived on my own, then I could do what I want!' • We use *wish* (or *If only*) + the past simple or the past continuous when we talk about a regret about a present situation.

I wish I didn't smoke. (He smokes, but he regrets it.)

I wish the flat was nearer the office. (It isn't near the office.)

I wish I was earning a lot more money. (He isn't earning a lot more.)

Note: We don't use *would* here. We don't say: 'I wish the flat would be nearer the office.'

• Note that with this construction we can use either *was* or *were* after *I*, *he*, *the flat*, etc. (1st and 3rd person singular):

I wish the flat was (OR were) nearer the office. I wish I was (OR were) earning a lot more money.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Brad wishes he (live) in his own flat.
- 2 He wishes he (have) a lot of money.
- 3 He wishes he (not smoke).

Step 3

Wish/If only + the past perfect

It's a month later. Brad has left the flat. The two girls are talking about him.

'It seems strange without Brad, doesn't it?'

'Yes, I sometimes wish we hadn't asked him to leave. He was a very nice guy really. He had a great sense of humour. I wish we'd tried to discuss things with him.'

'I know. I wish I hadn't criticised him so much.'

'If only he hadn't been so untidy.'

'If only he hadn't smoked in the flat.'

'If only, if only! If only things had been different! Why are we talking like this? We can't change the past.'

• We use *wish* and *if only* + the past perfect when we talk about a regret we have about something that happened or didn't happen in the past.

I wish we hadn't asked him to leave.

(But they asked him to leave.)

If only he hadn't smoked in the flat.

(But he smoked in the flat.)

We don't use would have after wish/if only.
 I wish we'd tried (had tried) to talk to each other more.
 (NOT I wish we would have tried.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences.

- 1 They asked Brad to leave. Now they wish they ... him to leave.
- 2 Brad was untidy. Now Louise says: 'I wish he ... so untidy.'
- 3 Brad smoked a lot. They wish he ... in the flat.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 would do 2 wouldn't leave 3 could persuade
- 2 1 lived 2 had 3 didn't smoke
- 3 1 hadn't asked 2 hadn't been 3 hadn't smoked

The infinitive of purpose *In order to So that, so*

Sarah Judd's a student. She's saving up to pay for a trip to India. She's going to sell her motorbike and her CD player to make some money. In order to sell them she put an advert in the local paper last week. She works in a bar two evenings a week in order to earn some extra money. Her parents have given her £500 to help her pay for her trip.

Step 1

Talking about the purpose of an action

• To talk about the purpose of an action we can use the infinitive of purpose (*to* + infinitive).

She's saving up to pay for a holiday.

She works in a bar to earn some extra money.

• We can also use *in order to* + infinitive. It is more formal.

In order to sell them she's put an advert in the local paper.

She works in a bar in order to earn some extra money.

We can use these two structures only if each part of the sentence has the same subject.

Sarah's saving up to pay for a holiday.

(Sarah's saving up. Sarah wants to pay for a holiday.)

• Note that there's no negative form of the infinitive of purpose. We can't say: Sarah stays in most evenings not to spend money. We use *so that* + a verb in the negative or *so as not to* + infinitive. (See Step 3.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer the questions with the infinitive of purpose or in order to.

- 1 Why does Sarah need money?
- 2 Why has she put an advert in the local paper?
- 3 Why did she phone the local paper last week?

Step 2

Talking about the purpose or use of a thing

Sarah doesn't have time to have breakfast at home. She takes something to eat on the bus and a book to read, usually a travel book about India. In the evening, if there's nothing to watch on television and she hasn't got any work to do, she plans her trip. She'll need a guide book to help her plan her route, and enough money to pay for her food and lodging. She's also going to take a notebook to write her experiences in. She's looking for someone to go with because she doesn't want to go alone.

• We use the infinitive of purpose (not *in order to*) to talk about the purpose or use of something.

She doesn't have **time to have** breakfast at home. She takes **something to eat** on the bus. She takes **a book to read**. Note that the preposition is still included when we use a verb as an infinitive of purpose. When the verb has an object, the preposition comes after the object.

(She wants to go with someone.)

- She's looking for someone to go with.
- (She'll write her experiences in a notebook.)

She's going to take a notebook to write her experiences in.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer the questions, using the infinitive of purpose.

- 1 Why does she take a book with her in the mornings?
- 2 Why will she need a guide book?
- 3 Why will she need money on the trip?

Step 3

So that/so

Every week Sarah puts her money in the bank so that she won't spend it! A travel agent has given her a lot of information so that she can choose the cheapest return flight to India. Sarah has found a friend to go with. His name's Sanjit. He's an Indian student at the same college. Yesterday Sarah invited Sanjit to her house so that they could discuss their plans. She told him to bring all his maps of India so they could both look at them.

We use so that (and not the infinitive of purpose) to talk about the purpose of an action:

- when there is a different subject in each part of the sentence. A travel agent has given her a lot of information so that she can choose the cheapest return flight to India.
- when the purpose is negative. Every week Sarah puts her money in the bank so that she won't spend it!
- Note that we can also use so as not to + infinitive. The meaning stays the same. Every week Sarah puts her money in the bank so as not to spend it!
- So that is often followed by will, won't, would, wouldn't, can, can't, could, couldn't. Sarah puts her money in the bank so that she won't spend it! She invited Sanjit so that they could discuss their plans.
- Note that so that is often shortened to so. She told him to bring all his maps **so** they could look at them together. She told him to bring all his maps so that they could look at them together.

These two sentences mean the same.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Answer the questions with so that (or so).

- 1 Why does Sarah put her money in the bank?
- 2 Why has the travel agent given Sarah a lot of information?
- 3 Why did Sarah invite Sanjit to her house?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 To pay for/In order to pay for her trip to India. 2 To sell/In order to sell her motorbike and her CD player. 3 To put/In order to put an advert in (the paper).
- 2 1 To read on the bus. 2 To help her plan her route. 3 To pay for her food and lodging.
- 3 1 So (that) she won't spend it. 2 So (that) she can choose the cheapest return flight. 3 So (that) they could discuss their plans.

Verb + infinitive with to: I want to go

In June 1921 a Scotsman, Arthur Ferguson, met an American tourist in Trafalgar Square, London. Ferguson managed to convince him that Nelson's Column, the famous statue in the square, was for sale. He offered to sell him the monument for only £6,000. The American agreed to buy it immediately, and he could afford to, because he was very rich. He didn't know how to get it back to his ranch in Texas, but he certainly intended to. Ferguson claimed to work for the Bank of England, so the American decided not to ask for a contract and didn't hesitate to give him a cheque immediately. Ferguson had £6,000 and Nelson's Column is still in Trafalgar Square!

Step 1

Verbs + infinitive with to

 When these verbs are followed by another verb, the second verb is normally the infinitive with to: afford, agree, aim, appear, arrange, ask, attempt, beg, choose, claim, consent, decide, demand, deserve, endeavour, expect, fail, guarantee, happen, help, hesitate, hope, hurry, intend, know (how), learn, long, manage, mean (= intend), neglect, offer, omit, plan, prepare, pretend, promise, prove, refuse, seek, seem, swear, tend, threaten, train, want, wish.

He managed to convince him that it was for sale. He offered to sell him the monument for £6,000.

He didn't know how to get the monument back to his ranch. Note the negative form of the infinitive:

The American decided **not to ask** for a contract. We don't normally use a negative infinitive after fail, hesitate, hurry, mean, neglect, omit, prepare, refuse, train, want, wish.

 With many of these verbs (afford, expect, intend, mean, seem, want, etc.) it isn't necessary to repeat the second verb if it's understood from the context. We just use to instead.

The American agreed to buy it, and he could **afford to**, because he was very rich.

(= He could afford to buy it.)

He didn't know how to get it back to his ranch in Texas, but he intended to.

(= He intended to get it back.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Ferguson (hope/make) a lot of money quickly.
- 2 He (decide/sell) Nelson's Column.
- 3 The American (learn/not/believe) everybody he met.

The American soon realised he'd lost his £6,000. At first he didn't dare tell the police because he didn't want to look foolish. But finally he asked them to help him find Ferguson. They said they couldn't help him to get his money back because they had more important crimes to solve.

Ferguson was planning to sell something else. 'I daren't sell Nelson's Column again,' he thought. 'How about Big Ben? Do I dare sell Big Ben?'

He sold the famous clock for £10,000 to an Italian millionaire!

• In the present, we can use *dare* as a modal verb or an ordinary verb. The modal verb is more common.

I daren't sell Nelson's Column again. (modal)

OR I don't dare (to) sell Nelson's Column again. (ordinary)

In the past we normally use *dare* as an ordinary verb.

He **didn't dare** (to) tell the police. (Rather than: dared not) In questions dare can be used as a modal verb or an ordinary verb (but in past questions the ordinary verb form is more common).

Do I dare (to) sell Big Ben? OR Dare I sell Big Ben?

- When we use *dare* as an ordinary verb it can be followed by an infinitive with or without *to*. The infinitive without *to* is more common in informal spoken English.
- Note that dare is normally used only in questions and negative sentences.
- The verb *help* can be followed by an infinitive with or without *to*. The meaning is the same.

He asked them to **help** him **find** Ferguson.

OR He asked them to help him to find Ferguson.

They couldn't **help** him **to get** his money back.

OR They couldn't help him **get** his money back.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Ferguson (dare/sell) Nelson's Column again?
- 2 No, he (dare/try) to sell it a second time.
- 3 The police (not help the American/find) Ferguson.

Step 3

Come and see/go and work

After that Ferguson decided to go and work in the USA. Outside the White House in Washington he stopped and talked to some visitors from Chicago. He rented them ten rooms in the White House for \$5,000! He said they could come and see their rooms later!

ullet After verbs like *go, come, stop, run, stay, hurry up* we often use *and* + infinitive without *to*.

He decided to **go and work** in the States.

They could come and see their rooms later.

And we always use *and* in commands like *Come and help me! Go and look!* etc. (NOT Come to help me!)

Note that and can also be followed by a past tense.
 He stopped and talked to some visitors from Chicago.
 (= He stopped to talk to some visitors)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences using and and the verbs.

- 1 After the sale Ferguson (not stay/talk) to the people from Chicago.
- 2 He (go/catch) a bus the airport.

Step 4

Verb + question word + infinitive with to

Ferguson then considered what to do next. He had to decide where to go. He decided to go to New York. When he arrived he asked someone how to get to Liberty Island. There, he sold the Statue of Liberty to some people from Brazil! But Ferguson didn't know when to stop. And he was finally arrested while he was trying to sell the Empire State Building! He was sent to prison for five years.

• After the following verbs we often use a question word + the infinitive with to: ask, consider, decide, discover, discuss, explain, find out, forget, know, learn, remember, show, teach, tell, understand, wonder.

Ferguson then considered what to do next.

He had to decide where to go.

He didn't **know when to stop**.

• The question words we use in this construction are: how what who where when (NOT why)

We also use the word *whether* in this construction.

At first Ferguson couldn't decide whether to stay in New York or not.

• Note that the verb *know* can't be followed directly by an infinitive. We say *I know* how to drive a car. (NOT I know to drive a car.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Ferguson had discovered (how/become) rich.
- 2 He knew (what/say) to make people believe him.
- 3 After the Statue of Liberty, he didn't know (what/sell) next.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 Ferguson hoped to make a lot of money quickly.
 2 He decided to sell Nelson's Column.
 3 The American learned not to believe everybody he met.
- 2 1 Did Ferguson dare (to) sell Nelson's Column again? 2 No, he didn't dare (to) try to sell it a second time. 3 The police didn't help the American (to) find Ferguson.
- 3 1 Ferguson didn't stay and talk to the people from Chicago. 2 He went and caught a bus to the airport.
- 4 1 Ferguson had discovered how to become rich. 2 He knew what to say to make people believe him. 3 he didn't know what to sell next.

Verb + object + infinitive: I want you to listen You make me laugh

Carla Finch is 17. She's a rebel.

'Society encourages me to be the same as everyone else. But I'm not. At school they don't allow me to be different. They advise me to conform. I ask them to listen to me, but they tell me to be quiet. They teach me to speak French, but they don't teach me how to live my life. My parents expect me to work hard and to get a job. They warn me not to waste time. For them the most important thing is to earn money. Big multinational companies produce things and then get people to buy them. If you haven't got the money to buy them, you aren't a good citizen.'

Step 1

Verb + object (noun or pronoun) + infinitive with to

• We use the following verbs in the structure **verb** + **object** (**noun or pronoun**) + **infinitive** when we say or do something to influence someone else: *advise*, *allow*, *ask*, *beg*, *cause*, *compel*, *encourage*, *expect*, *forbid*, *force*, *get*, *instruct*, *invite*, *oblige*, *order*, *persuade*, *recommend*, *remind*, *request*, *teach*, *tell*, *warn*.

verb+object+infinitiveThey don't allowmeto be different.They warnmenot to waste time.They getpeopleto buy their products.

- With these verbs we use the infinitive with *to* (negative *not to*).
- After the verb *teach* we often add *how* before the infinitive. They **teach me to speak** French. (OR how to speak French.) But they **don't teach me how to live** my life.
- The verb get is often used with the meaning persuade.
 They get people to buy them.
 (=They persuade people to buy them.)
- Many of these verbs are reporting verbs used in reported speech. (See Unit 54.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Write complete sentences.

- 1 Her parents/expect/Carla/get a job.
- 2 They/warn/her/not be lazy.
- 3 Society/encourage/people/earn money.

Step 2

Make and let + infinitive without to

My parents make me work every evening. They make me feel guilty if I watch television. They don't let me go out during the week. My friends' parents let them do what they like. My parents make me so angry!

• Note the use of this construction with *make* and *let*.

Make/let+object+infinitive without toThey makemework.They don't letmego out.

- Make has two meanings force and cause.
 They make me work. (=They force me to.)
 They make me feel guilty. (=They cause me to.)
- *Make* meaning *cause to be* can be followed by an adjective. *They make me so angry.*
- *Make* can be used in a passive construction. It's followed by the infinitive with *to*. *Carla is made to work every evening*.

Note that let can't be used in a passive construction. We use allow + infinitive with to.

Her friends are allowed to do what they like.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the sentences, using make or let.

- 1 They don't allow her to watch television.
- 2 They force her to stay in during the week.
- 3 They only allow her to go out on Saturday evening.
- 4 Her friends cause her to be envious.

Step 3

Want, would like, would love, would prefer, would hate

Carla's grandfather enjoys talking to her. They have endless discussions. 'I want society to change.'

'But what would you like people to do?'

'I'd like them to take control of their own lives. And I want the government to see that people are more important than economic growth.'

'Well, I'd hate you to be very ill if there were no hospitals or doctors. Governments need money to pay for health care and education.'

'I know, but I'd prefer them not to make money by selling arms. If we want wars to stop, we must stop the arms trade now.'

'But you want things to change too guickly. These things take time.'

• We use *want, would like, would love, would prefer, would hate* + object + infinitive with *to* when we talk about our wishes.

vérb+object+infinitiveI wantsocietyto change.What would you likepeopleto do?

I'd prefer them not to make money.

Note: With *want* we use the structure **verb** + **object** + **infinitive**. (NOT I want that society changes. OR If we want that wars stop.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Write complete sentences.

- 1 Carla/want/the government/listen to people.
- 2 She/would like/the government/stop selling arms.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1,2 AND 3

- 1 1 Her parents expect Carla to get a job. 2 They warn her not to be lazy. 3 Society encourages people to earn money.
- 2 1 They don't let her watch television. 2 They make her stay in during the week. 3 They only
- let her go out on Saturday evening. 4 Her friends make her envious.
- 3 1 Carla wants the government to listen to people. 2 She'd like the government to stop selling arms.

Adjective + infinitive: It's difficult to say

A policeman is talking to the driver of a sports car he's just stopped.

'Good evening, sir.'

'Good evening, officer.'

'I suppose it's easy to break the speed limit in a fast car like this. It must be an exciting car to drive.'

'Er, yes, it is.'

'It must be hard not to drive fast.'

'Yes, it isn't easy.'

'And it isn't easy to remember that the speed limit's 70 m.p.h.'

'No, sometimes it isn't.'

'How fast do you think you were going?'

'It's difficult to say.'

'Would you be surprised to know that you were breaking the limit?'

Step 1

Adjective (+ noun) + infinitive with to

adjective + infinitive with to

difficult It's to say.

It isn't easy to remember that the speed limit's 70 m.p.h.

• We sometimes use a negative infinitive with *not* after the adjective. It must be hard **not to drive** fast.

• The most common adjectives used with an infinitive are: cheap, dangerous, difficult, disappointed, easy, exciting, expensive, good, hard, important, impossible, interesting, lucky, nice, pleased, possible, ready, safe, sensible, silly, stupid, surprised, terrible, wonderful.

• We sometimes use the construction:

infinitive adjective +

It must be an

exciting

car

to drive.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences using the words in brackets.

1 It's ... the speed limit. (important/remember)

2 It's ... with the police. (stupid/argue)

3 It's ... too fast. (sensible/drive)

Step 2

Adjective + for + noun/pronoun + infinitive with to

'But it's normal for drivers to break the speed limit by a few miles an

'You aren't the first person to say that, sir. I admit, it isn't unusual for people to do 75 or 80 m.p.h. But you were doing over 100 m.p.h.! Now, I'm afraid it's necessary for me to have your name and address.'

 adjective noun/pronoun + infinitive with to to break the limit. It's normal for drivers It's necessary for me to have your name.

We use this construction with adjectives like: common, difficult, easy, essential, important, necessary, normal, rare, unnecessary, unusual, usual.

• It's also used with the first, the second, etc. and the next, the last. You aren't the first person to say that, sir.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the sentences.

- 1 A lot of people drive too fast. It's common for ...
- 2 But not many people drive at over 100 m.p.h. It's unusual for ...
- 3 Drivers shouldn't break the speed limit. It's important for ...

Step 3

To be+ adjective + of + noun/pronoun + infinitive with to

'All right, officer. It was wrong of me to break the speed limit. It was stupid of me to drive so fast. I'm sorry. Now, can I go?' 'Well, it was good of you to apologise, sir. But you can't go yet, I'm afraid. Your name and address, please.'

Note this construction:

be noun/pronoun + infinitive with to adjective + of to break the limit. It was wrong of It was good of you to apologise. We use this construction with adjectives that describe how someone behaves: careless, clever, generous, good, kind, mean, nice, polite, silly, stupid, wrong.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences.

- 1 He drove too fast. It was stupid of ... fast.
- 2 He didn't see the police car behind him. It was careless of ...
- 3 He thought the police officer would let him go. It was silly of ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 It's important to remember the speed limit.
 - 2 It's stupid to argue with the police.
 - 3 It's sensible not to drive too fast. OR It's not sensible to drive too fast.
- 2 1 It's common for people to drive too fast.
- 2 It's unusual for people to drive at over 100
- m.p.h. 3 It's important for drivers not to break the speed limit.
- 3 1 It was stupid of him to drive too fast. 2 It was careless of him not to see the police car behind him. 3 It was silly of him to think that the police officer would let him go.

Verb + -ing: I enjoy swimming

It's the weekend. Rowan's asking Emma what she wants to do.

'What do you fancy doing? Shall we go for a walk?'

'No, I can't imagine doing anything more boring!'

'Do you fancy going round to Pete's place?'

'No, I don't want to risk seeing his sister. I owe her £20, so I'm trying to avoid meeting her, if possible.'

'Well, I haven't finished cleaning the windows. Do you mind helping me?'

'No, you know I don't enjoy doing that. That's your job.'

Step 1

Verbs that are followed by the -ing form (gerund)

• If these verbs are followed by another verb, we use the *-ing* form (gerund) of the second verb: *admit, avoid, consider, deny, detest, dislike, enjoy, escape, fancy, finish, imagine, keep, mind, miss, practise, recall, regret, risk, suggest.*

What do you **fancy doing**? (NOT fancy to do)
I don't want to **risk seeing** her. (NOT risk to see)

Would you **mind helping** me? (NOT mind to help me)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences using the verbs go, do, make.

- 1 Rowan keeps ... suggestions. 2 He suggests ... for a walk.
- 3 Emma dislikes ... for walks. 4 She doesn't enjoy ... that.

Step 2

Go and come followed by the -ing form

'Well, shall we go swimming? Or we could go windsurfing.'

'I've never been windsurfing and I don't fancy starting now.'

'Do you want to come jogging with me?'

'Jogging! No, thanks!'

'Well, I might go into town. Do you want to come shopping?'

'No. I went shopping yesterday. I don't want to do anything.'

We use go and come + -ing when we talk about sports or outside activities.
 Shall we go swimming? (NOT Shall we go to swim?)
 I've never been windsurfing.

I went shopping yesterday. Do you want to come jogging with me?

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

What do you do with these things? (Example: a bike - You go cycling.)

1 a fishing rod 2 skis 3 a credit card

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 Rowan keeps making suggestions. 2 He suggests going for a walk. 3 Emma dislikes going for walks. 4 She doesn't enjoy doing
- 2 1 You go fishing. 2 You go skiing. 3 You go shopping.

Preposition + -ing: I'm tired of waiting

Judy Barnard's being interviewed for a job with a travel company. 'Thank you for coming, Miss Barnard. Before starting, I'd like to say that I'm not interested in interviewing people who simply like the idea of travelling round the world. The job is more difficult than that.' 'Don't worry. I'm fed up with doing temporary jobs. I'm keen on doing a real job for a change.'

'Good. Now, I see you left school without taking any exams.'

'Yes. I was tired of studying. I was more interested in earning some money. By staying at school, I was just wasting my time.'

'What did you do after leaving school?'

'Well, I wanted to go to Australia, and by working hard for six months, I saved up enough money to pay for the fare.'

Step 1

(Adjective) + preposition + -ing

• When a verb follows a preposition (*in*, *at*, *on*, etc.), the verb ends in *-ing*. The preposition is sometimes on its own.

Before starting, I'd like to say that ... by staying at school without taking any exams. after leaving school

- There's sometimes an adjective before the preposition.

 I'm not interested in interviewing people. I'm keen on doing a real job.

 Here are some other common adjectives + preposition: afraid of doing something, excited about doing something, angry about doing something, fond of doing something, bad at doing something, good at doing something, clever at doing something, proud of doing something.
- There's sometimes a noun before the preposition. people who simply like the **idea of** travelling I don't like the **thought of** not getting the job. That's the **advantage of** working for a travel company.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Add a preposition + an -ing form.

- 1 Why do a lot of people want to work for travel companies? Because they like the idea ...
- 2 Why does she want a real job for a change? Because she's fed up ...
- 3 How did Judy get enough money to go to Australia? By ...

Step 2

Verb + preposition + -ing

'What did you do in Australia, Miss Barnard?'

'I travelled a lot. I worked for a bit, and when I felt like moving on, I just got on a bus. I don't believe in staying in the same place all the time. I think I succeeded in visiting every Australian state.'

'And did you come home then?'

'Yes. I thought about staying longer, but my visa ran out, and I was looking forward to coming home and seeing my friends again.'

• Some verbs are followed by a preposition + an -ing form.

verb+preposition+the -ing form of a verbI thoughtaboutstaying longer.I feltlikemoving on.I was looking forwardtoseeing my friends.

- Here are some other common verbs + preposition: to apologise for doing something, to dream of doing something, to approve of doing something, to insist on doing something, to decide against doing something, to talk about doing something.
- Note that *to* is normally the infinitive mark (*I wanted to come home*). But *to* is sometimes used as a preposition.

I was looking forward to coming home.

(To here is a preposition so you can't say 'I was looking forward to come home.') I wanted to come home.

(*To* here is the infinitive mark, so you can't say 'I wanted to coming home.')

K QUESTIONS 2

Answer the questions.

- 1 Why did Judy keep moving on? She ... (not believe)
- 2 How many states did she visit? She ... (succeed)
- 3 Why did she want to come home? She ... (look forward to)

Step 3

Verb + object + preposition + -ing

'Well, Miss Barnard, I'd like to thank you for coming. And I congratulate you on getting the job!'

'I've got the job? Really? Thanks very much! Um, forgive me for asking, but what will my salary be?'

• Some verbs are followed by an object, usually a person, and a preposition.

verb +	object +	preposition	+ verb ending in -in
I'd like to thank	you	for	coming.
I congratulate	you	on	getting the job.
Forgive	me	for	asking
Here are some	e other verbs	+ object + prepos	sition:
to accuse	aomaona	of	daing comathing

to accuse	someone	e of	doing something
to blame	someone	e for	doing something
to prevent	someone	e from	doing something
to stop	someone	e from	doing something
to succeed		in	doing something
to suspect	someone	e of	doing something

ECK QUESTIONS .

Answer the questions.

- 1 What does he thank Judy for? He thanks ...
- 2 How does she know she's got the job? He congratulates ... it.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 the idea of travelling round the world.2 Because she's fed up with doing temporary jobs.3 By working hard for six months.
- 2 1 She didn't believe in staying in the same place. 2 She succeeded in visiting every state.
- 3 She was looking forward to seeing her friends.
- 3 1 He thanks her for coming.
- 2 He congratulates her on getting it.

Do you mind + -ing? I don't mind + -ing It's no use, there's no point, etc. + -ing

'Tom! Do you mind taking these books off my desk? And would you mind not leaving my computer switched on?'

'Sorry, Dad. I was doing my homework.'

'I don't mind helping you with your homework. I don't mind you using my computer, but would you mind asking me before you use it?'

Step '

Do/Would you mind? I don't mind/he doesn't mind

• When *mind* is followed by a verb we always use the *-ing* form. Do you **mind taking** your books off my desk? I don't mind helping you with your homework.

Would you mind asking me before you use it? Do you mind? and Would you mind? are polite ways of asking someone to do something. Would you mind? is a little more polite.

• When we say we don't mind what someone else does, we use:

don't mind

a noun or pronoun

I don't mind

you

using my computer.

- Note that we can use a negative -ing form after mind: Would you mind **not leaving** my computer switched on?
- Note that we only use the negative and question form of *mind*.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences.

- 1 He (not mind/help) Tom with his homework.
- 2 He (mind) Tom using his computer?

Step 2

can't stand can't help

Now Tom's father is talking to Tom's sister, Kate.

'Kate! Turn that music down! I can't stand listening to that terrible noise! And I can't stand you wasting your time. Do some homework!' (Later) 'Mum. What's the matter with Dad? Why's he so angry?' 'He can't help being irritable sometimes. I can't help thinking he's got problems at work. We all get angry, and sometimes we can't help it.'

• We use can't stand to show strong dislike. It means hate or detest. When it's followed by a verb, we always use the -ing form.

I can't stand listening to that terrible noise.

(The expression can't bear means the same as can't stand, so we can say 'I can't bear listening to that awful noise.' But can't bear can also be followed by the infinitive with to: 'I can't bear to listen to that awful noise.')

• When we say we can't stand what someone else does, we use:

I can't stand

can't stand + noun or pronoun you

-ing wasting your time.

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Or we can say:

when clause it + can't stand +

when you waste your time. I can't stand

 Can't help means that you can't stop yourself from doing something. It's often followed by it. When it's followed by a verb, we always use-ing.

Sometimes we can't help it. (= We can't stop ourselves.) He can't help being irritable. (= He can't stop himself)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the sentences.

- 1 He hates Kate to waste her time. He can't ...
- 2~ He can't stop himself from getting angry. He can't ...

Step 3

It's no use, there's no point, it's (not) worth + -ing

Kate's talking to her brother later in the evening.

'Tom, there's a good film on television at 10.15. People at school say it's really worth seeing. Shall we ask Dad if we can watch it?'

'It's no use asking him at the moment. It isn't worth it. He'll say no.

There's no point asking him.'

'He might say yes. It's worth trying.'

(Later)

'I tried, but it was no good. He said no.'

'You see, it wasn't worth asking him. I told you.'

• It's no use/There's no point/It's (isn't) worth are followed by the -ing form of the verb, not the infinitive with to.

It's no use asking Dad. (NOT It's no use to ask Dad.)

There's no point asking him. It's worth trying.

It's no use, There's no point and It isn't worth mean more or less the same (= there's no sense in doing something).

- We can also use worth + -ing to (or not to) recommend something. The film's really worth seeing. Dad isn't worth talking to at the moment.
- We can say It's no good instead of It's no use. It's no good asking Dad. (= It's no use asking Dad.)

We sometimes say *There's no point* in doing something, but in is often omitted. There's no point (in) asking him.

 Sometimes we don't need to repeat the following verb. I tried, but it was no use. (= It was no use trying.) There's no point asking him. It isn't worth it. It's no use asking him. There's no point.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite the sentences.

- 1 There was no point asking their father. It was ...
- 2 It wasn't worth trying. There ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 He doesn't mind helping Tom with his homework. 2 Does he mind Tom using his computer?
- 2 1 He can't stand Kate wasting her time. 2 He can't help getting angry.
- 3 1 It was no use/no good asking their father. OR It wasn't worth asking their father. 2 There was no point trying. OR It was no use/no good trying.

-ing clauses: He sat listening

Salesman Barry Tate of Solihull, Birmingham sat in his car listening to the radio and thinking about his next customer. Suddenly a car went past. Mr Tate couldn't believe it – two legs were hanging out of the back! He decided to follow the car. He nearly had an accident trying to phone the police on his mobile phone. He couldn't contact them. Taking a pen out of his pocket, he then wrote down the car's registration number. Having written down the number, he tried to call the police again.

Step 1

The -ing form for one of two actions

• If two actions happen at the same time, we can use a verb in the -ing form for one of the actions.

He sat in his car listening to the radio.

(= He sat and listened at the same time.)

He sat thinking about his next customer.

(= He sat and thought about his next customer.)

We often use this construction after the verbs be, lie, sit, stand.

• If one action happens while another action is going on, we can use a verb in the -ing form for the longer action.

He nearly **had** an accident **trying** to phone the police on his mobile phone. (= He nearly had an accident while he was trying to phone the police.)

• If one action immediately follows another action, we can use a verb in the *-ing* form for the first action.

Taking a pen out of his pocket, he **wrote down** the car's registration number. (= He took his pen out, then immediately wrote down the number.)

• If we need to emphasise that one action was completed before another action started, we use *having* + a past participle.

Having written down the number, he tried to call the police again.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Rewrite the two sentences as one.

- 1 He was sitting. He was watching the car in front.
- 2 He used his mobile phone. He tried to call the police.
- 3 He failed to contact the police the first time. He tried to phone them again.

Thinking that the legs must belong to a murder victim, Mr Tate was very excited. Imagining that he'd be a hero the next day, he tried to stop the car by flashing his lights. Not understanding what Mr Tate's signals meant, the driver kept going. But when Mr Tate flashed his lights again, he stopped. A man got out of the boot of the car and explained everything. They were mechanics. There was a strange noise at the back of the car. Having tried without success to find the reason for the noise at the garage, they'd decided to take the car out on the road. Wanting to listen more carefully, he'd climbed into the boot. It was his legs that were hanging out of the back!

• We can use a clause with a verb in the *-ing* form to explain why something happened.

Thinking that the legs must belong to a murder victim, Mr Tate was very excited. (Mr Tate was excited because he thought the legs belonged to a murder victim.) Imagining that he'd be a hero the next day, he tried to stop the car. (He tried to stop the car because he imagined he'd be a hero.)

- We can use a negative form.
 - *Not understanding* what Mr Tate's signals meant, the driver kept going. (The driver kept going because he didn't understand.)
- If we need to emphasise that the action giving the reason was completed before another action started, we use *having* + a past participle.

Having tried without success to find the reason for the noise, they'd decided to take the car out on the road.

HECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the two sentences as one.

- 1 The driver thought there must be something wrong. He stopped.
- 2 He was in the boot of the car. It was easier for him to hear the noise.
- 3 Mr Tate stopped the car in front. He got out to speak to the driver.
- 4 Mr Tate felt stupid. He asked them not to tell anyone what had happened.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 He was sitting watching the car in front. 2 Using his mobile phone, he tried to call the police. 3 Having failed to contact the police the first time, he tried to phone them again.
- 2 1 Thinking there must be something wrong, the driver stopped. 2 Being in the boot of the car, it was easier for him to hear the noise.
- 3 Having stopped the car in front, Mr Tate got out to speak to the driver. OR Mr Tate, having stopped the car in front, got out ... 4 Feeling stupid, Mr Tate asked them not to tell anyone what had happened.

Like, *love*, *hate* + infinitive with *to* or + -*ing*

During a Health and Leisure programme on TV, people were asked, 'What do you like doing in your spare time?' These were some of their answers:

'I like doing active things. I like swimming and going for walks. I hate sitting around and doing nothing.'

'I love to go to the coffee shop and meet friends. I hate playing sport, but I enjoy watching it on TV. I don't like people telling me I'm lazy.' 'I don't like to go out much. I enjoy relaxing at home. I like watching television and listening to music. And I like friends coming round to see me.'

Step 1

Like, love, hate + infinitive with to and -ing, enjoy + -ing

• The verbs *like*, *love* and *hate* can be followed by *-ing* or by the infinitive with *to*. The meaning is the same. The construction with *-ing* is more common.

verb + -ingverb + infinitive with toI like doing active things.ORI like to do active things.I hate playing sport.ORI hate to play sport.I love going to the coffee shop.ORI love to go to the coffee shop.

• The verb *enjoy* can only be followed by *-ing*. *I enjoy watching sport*. (NOT I enjoy to watch sport.)

(For the verb *prefer* + infinitive with *to* or *-ing* see Unit 51.)

• When we say we like or don't like what someone else does, we normally use this construction:

like/love/hate/enjoy+noun/pronoun+-ingI likefriendscoming round.I don't likepeopletelling me I'm lazy.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Write complete sentences.

- 1 A lot of people/enjoy/go to the coffee shop/and/meet friends.
- 2 Some people/not like/go out much. They/like/read/and/listen to music.
- 3 Some people/hate/play football/but/enjoy/watch it.

Another question was: 'What do you do to stay healthy?'
'I like to eat fruit and fresh vegetables at least once a day. And I like to take at least half an hour's exercise every day. I like to look after myself.'
'I like to go to the doctor's twice a year. I like him to check my blood pressure.'

• When we use *like* to say that something is a good idea, *like* is followed by the infinitive with *to*, not *-ing*.

I like to go to the doctor's twice a year.

(= I go because it's a good thing, not because I enjoy it.)

Note: 'I like going to the doctor's' = 'I enjoy going to the doctor's.'

• When we say what someone else does is a good idea, we use this construction:

like, etc. + noun/pronoun + infinitive with to

to check my blood pressure.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences.

Llike

- 1 I like chocolate, but I don't like (eat) it every day.
- 2 I like (go) swimming. I really enjoy it.
- 3 I like (go) to the dentist's regularly.

Step 3

Would like/would love/would hate + infinitive with to

The presenter then asked: 'Would you like to make any changes in your life?'

'I'd like to take more exercise because I'd like to lose weight.'
He asked the smokers in the audience: 'Would you like to give up smoking?' Most of them said: 'I'd love to, but I can't.'
He then asked a beer-drinker if he'd like to give up drinking beer. He replied: 'I'd hate to give up my only pleasure in life!'

• Would like, would love, would hate are followed by the infinitive with to, not the -ing form.

I'd like to lose weight. (NOT I'd like losing weight.)

I'd hate to give up my only pleasure. (NOT I'd hate giving up)

• Note that sometimes after *would like/love/hate* it isn't necessary to repeat the complete infinitive. We just use *to*.

I'd love to, but I can't. (= I'd love to give up smoking.)

• (For *I'd like/hate/prefer* + object + infinitive with *to*, see Unit 44.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in would like/would hate + verb.

- 1 I'm too heavy. I ... weight. (lose)
- 2 I... smoking. It isn't good for me. (stop)
- 3 I love going to the pub. I ... drinking beer. (give up)

The presenter then asked people if they had any regrets. 'What would you like to have done?' These were some of their answers: 'I'd like to have played more sport when I was younger.' 'I've always worked in an office. I'd like to have had a more active job.' 'I'm lucky. I've never been ill. I'd hate to have had problems with my health.'

• would like, etc. + to have + past participle
I'd like to have played more sport.
I'd hate to have had problems.

We use this construction to talk about the present regrets we have about a past situation.

I'd like to have had a more active job.

(= I didn't have an active job in the past. I regret it now.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Put in would like/would hate to have.

- 1 I didn't eat well when I was young. I ... less junk food. (eat)
- 2 I gave up smoking last year. I (give it up) ... ten years ago.
- 3 In the 1950s London was polluted. I (live) ... in London then.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 A lot of people enjoy going to the pub and meeting friends.
 2 Some people don't like going out (to go out) much.
 They like reading (to read) and listening (to listen) to music.
 3 Some people hate playing (to play) football, but enjoy watching it.
- 2 1 eating 2 going (less common: to go) 3 to go
- 3 1 I'd like to lose weight. 2 I'd like to stop smoking. 3 I'd hate to give up drinking beer.
- 4 1 I'd like to have eaten 2 I'd like to have given it up 3 I'd hate to have lived

I prefer to do/I prefer doing I'd prefer to/I'd rather

Justin and Rachel have only been married for six months, but they've already discovered that they prefer doing different things. Rachel doesn't like staying at home in the evening. She prefers going out and meeting people. Justin prefers staying in to going out. He prefers to sit in front of the television.

Rachel: Shall we go to Jake's party?

Justin: I don't want to go out this evening. I'd prefer to stay at home. OK?

Rachel: No, it's not OK! You always prefer doing nothing.

Justin: That's not true. But this evening I'd prefer to watch television rather than go to a party.

Rachel: But you always say: 'I'd prefer not to go out this evening.'

You're so boring!

Step 1

Prefer to do/prefer doing or would prefer

• When we talk about what someone generally prefers, we can use either *prefer* + -*ing* or *prefer* + infinitive with *to*. The meaning is the same.

They each prefer doing different things.

(= They each **prefer to do** different things.)

He prefers to sit in front of the television.

(= He **prefers sitting** in front of the television.)

• When we're talking about a particular situation, we normally use *would* ('d) *prefer* + infinitive with *to*.

I'd prefer to stay at home.

Note: Would prefer is never followed by -ing.

 When we talk about two alternatives, we say: Justin prefers staying in to going out.

OR Justin prefers to stay in rather than go out.

When we use *prefer* + -ing we join the alternatives with to.

When we use *prefer* + infinitive with *to* we join the alternatives with *rather than* followed by an infinitive without *to*.

- Note that we can use a negative infinitive. *I'd prefer not to go* out this evening.
- The verb *prefer* is never used in continuous tenses. We can't say: 'I'm preferring to stay at home.'

(For would prefer + object + infinitive, see Unit 44.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences, using (would) prefer to do/prefer doing.

- 1 Tonight Justin ... (watch) a video.
- 2 He usually ... (stay) at home to ... (go out)
- 3 This evening Rachel ... (go) to a party rather than ... (watch) television.
- 4 She always prefers ... (go out) with her friends rather than ... (stay) at home.

Rachel: Well, if we don't go to the party, I'd rather go to a pub than stay at home. Would you rather stay at home or come with me?

Justin: Oh, all right then, I'll come. But I'd rather not go to a pub. I'd prefer to go to the cinema. Would you like to do that?

Rachel: No, I'd rather not. Listen, why don't we go to Jake's party? You enjoyed the party we went to last week, didn't you?

Justin: No, not really. I'd rather have watched the football on television.

Rachel: Well, I'm going out!

Justin: I'd rather you didn't go. I'd rather you stayed here with me. Rachel: And I'd rather we went out together. But you don't want to.

• To talk about what we prefer in a particular situation, we say: *I'd prefer to go* to the cinema. OR *I'd rather go* to the cinema.

These two sentences mean the same.

Note: After *would prefer* we use the infinitive with *to*. After *would rather* we use the infinitive without *to*.

• Note the question forms:

Would you rather stay at home or come with me? OR Would you prefer to stay at home or come with me?

- Note the negative short answers: Would you like to do that? No, I'd rather not. OR No, I'd prefer not to.
- When we talk about two alternatives, we say: *I'd rather* go to a pub **than** stay at home. OR **I'd prefer** to go to a pub **rather than** stay at home.
- When our preference includes another person, we use a verb in the form of a past tense after *would rather*.

I'd rather you didn't go. (OR I'd prefer you not to go.)

I'd rather you **stayed** here. (OR I'd prefer you to stay here.) *I'd rather* we **went** out together. (OR I'd prefer us to go out together.)

Although the verb has a past form, we're talking about the present or future.

• When we talk about regrets we have now about something that happened in the past, we can use these constructions:

would rather + have +
I'd rather have

past participle watched the football.

OR: would

would prefer + to have + I'd prefer to have

past participle watched the football.

We use would rather have more often.

Note: With these constructions we're talking about actions that didn't happen. In the example Justin didn't watch the football.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete these sentences.

- 1 What/Rachel/prefer/do? 2 She/rather/go/to a pub.
- 3 Last night they went to a pub. Justin/rather/stay at home.
- 4 Rachel often says: I/rather/we/go out more.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 would prefer to watch 2 prefers staying ... to going out 3 would prefer to go ... rather than watch 4 prefers to go out ... rather than stay
- 2 1 What would Rachel prefer to do? 2 She'd rather go to a pub. 3 Justin would rather have stayed at home. 4 I'd rather we went out more.

Verb + infinitive with to or + -ing Remember to do or remember doing

Gavin Armstrong began writing his first novel while he was on holiday in Italy. When he got back to England he bought himself a second-hand computer and started writing his book again, on screen. He was slow, because he didn't bother to learn to type - he only used two fingers. He continued typing every evening after work. He intended to finish the book before Easter.

Step 1

Verbs that can be followed by infinitive with to or -ing

• Some verbs can be followed by the infinitive with *to* or the *-ing* form. The meaning is usually the same. The most common verbs are: *begin*, *bother*, *continue*, *intend*, *start*.

continue, interia, orar i				
verb +	-ing		verb +	infinitive
He began	writing	OR	He began	to write
He started	writing	OR.	He started	to write
He didn't bother	learning	OR	He didn't bother to lear	
He continued	typing	OR	He continued	to type
He intended	finishing	OR	He intended	to finish

• We don't use the *-ing* form after a verb in a continuous tense (where the main verb ends in *-ing*).

He was beginning to think of ideas for his book. (NOT He was beginning thinking of ideas)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Choose from these verbs to complete the sentences: use, buy, send, write.

- 1 He began ... when he was still at school.
- 2 He didn't bother ... a new computer.
- 3 He continued ... two fingers to type.
- 4 He was intending ... his novel to two or three publishers.

Step 2

Go on, need, stop + the infinitive with to or -ing

Gavin went on writing for seven months. He was sure that if he could finish this first novel, he could go on to become a famous writer. One evening, just before Easter, he sat down and started writing. Now he only needed to write the last chapter. He wrote for six hours. He only stopped writing twice. First, when the cat needed feeding, he stopped to give it something to eat. Then, when he felt tired, he stopped to make a cup of strong black coffee.

- These verbs can also be followed by the infinitive with to or the -ing form, but the meaning is not the same: go on, need, stop.
- Go on to do OR go on doing?

We use *go on* + infinitive with *to* when a situation or an action comes later.

He could go on to become a famous writer.

(= Then, later, he could become a famous writer.)

We use go on + -ing when we continue doing the same thing.

He went on writing for seven months.

(= He continued writing for seven months.)

• Need to do OR need doing?

We use *need* + the infinitive with *to* when we say what it's necessary to do.

He needed to write the last chapter.

(= It was necessary to write the last chapter.)

We use *need* + -ing when we say that something is in need of attention.

The cat needed feeding. (= The cat was in need of food.)

Stop to do or stop doing?

We use *stop* + the infinitive with *to* when we stop one action in order to do a different one. The infinitive here is the infinitive of purpose. (See Unit 42.)

He **stopped to make** a cup of strong black coffee.

(He stopped writing in order to make a cup of coffee.)

We use *stop* + -ing to say that an action finishes.

He only **stopped writing** twice.

(He was writing, then he stopped. He didn't stop in order to write.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in the right form of the verb.

- 1 He needed ... the book by Easter. (finish)
- 2 For a long time he didn't stop ... (work)
- 3 Then he stopped ... something to drink. (have)
- 4 After that he went on ... for another three hours. (type)

Step 3 Forget, remember, regret, try + infinitive with to or -ing

Gavin was typing the final page of the last chapter of his book when there was a power cut. Suddenly everything disappeared from the computer screen. Normally he remembered to save his work, but this time he'd forgotten to save what he'd written. When the power came back, he desperately tried to find the work he'd done. He tried pressing every button on the computer. He tried phoning the software company. But his last chapter had simply disappeared.

He'll never forget losing that last chapter! He'll always regret not saving it. He'll always remember seeing the computer screen go blank.

- The verbs forget, remember, regret, try can be followed by the infinitive with to or the -ing form, but the meaning is not the same.
- Forget to do OR forget doing?

We use forget + the infinitive with to to say we didn't do something we should have done.

He'd forgotten to save what he'd written.

(= He didn't save what he'd written. He should have done.)

We use forget + the -ing form (normally in negative sentences) when we talk about memories of things we did in the past.

He'll never forget losing that last chapter.

(= He'll always have the memory of losing the chapter.)

Remember to do or remember doing?

We use remember + the infinitive with to when we remember that we have to do something.

Normally he remembered to save his work.

(= He remembered he had to save his work.)

We use remember + the -ing form when we talk about something we did in the past. He'll always remember seeing the screen go blank.

(= He'll always have the memory of seeing the screen go blank.)

If the remembering or the forgetting comes:

remember/forget + infinitive with to before the action remember/forget + -ing after the action

• Try to do OR try doing?

We use try + the infinitive with to when we say we make an effort to do something or see if we can do something.

He **tried to find** the work he'd done.

(He made an effort to find it.)

We use try + the -ing form when we talk about a possible solution to a problem.

He tried phoning the software company.

(= He phoned the company to see if they could help him.)

He tried pressing every button on his computer.

Regret to do OR regret doing?

We use *regret* + the infinitive with *to* to announce bad news.

I regret to say that I lost the last chapter.

We use regret + the -ing form when we wish we had/hadn't done something. He'll always regret not saving it.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in the right form of the verb.

- 1 Normally he remembered ... what he'd written. (copy)
- 2 He tried ... his computer, but that didn't work. (hit)
- 3 He'll never forget ... the empty computer screen. (see)
- 4 The next day he tried ... what he'd written, but he couldn't. (remember)
- 5 Now he regrets ... more careful. (not be)

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1. 2 AND 3

1 1 He began to write/began writing when he was still at school. 2 He didn't bother to buy/didn't bother buying a new computer. 3 He continued to use/continued using two

fingers to type. 4 He was intending to send his novel to two or three publishers.

2 1 to finish 2 working 3 to have 4 typing 3 1 to copy 2 hitting 3 seeing 4 to remember 5 not being

53

Reported speech: He said it was a good car

Anna Radford bought a second-hand car from a man who seemed honest.

'He said it was a good car. He told me he'd had it for two years. He thought it had a new engine.'

Step 1

Uses of reported speech

• We often report what another person said but we don't use exactly the same words. This is called reported speech or indirect speech.

Direct speech

Reported speech

'It's a good car.'

He said it was a good car.

'I've had it for two years.'

He told me he'd had it for two years.

We use '...' (inverted commas/speech marks) to show direct speech. We don't use '...' in reported speech. We don't write: He said 'it was a good car.'

We often leave out that after the reporting verb.

He said it was a good car.

(Less formal)

He said that it was a good car. (More formal)

• We can use both *say* and *tell* as reporting verbs. If we mention who we're talking to, we use *tell* + indirect object (*me*, *him*, *the man*, etc.). We don't put *to* before the indirect object.

He told me it was a good car.

(NOT He told to me it was a good car.)

If we don't mention who we're talking to, we use say.

He **said** it was a good car.

(NOT He said me it was a good car.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Change to reported speech.

- 1 'It isn't expensive.' He said ...
- 2 'It's got a good radio.' He told ...

Change to direct speech.

- 3 He said it had new tyres. 'It ...'
- 4 He told her it was very reliable. 'It ...'

Step 2

How verb forms change in reported speech

'He said he'd never had any problems with the car. He bought it from an old lady. He told me he wasn't selling it because he wanted to. He'd been hoping to keep it but his company had given him a new car. He promised that he would send me all the papers. He said I wasn't going to regret buying the car.'

• If the reporting verb is in the past (*He said ... He told me ...*), the verb in reported speech usually changes. It 'goes back' one tense into the past.

Direct speech
Present simple

Reported speech
Past simple

'It's a good car.' He said it was a good car.

Present continuous Past continuous

'I'm not selling it' He said he wasn't selling it

Past simple Past perfect

'... my company gave He said his company had given

me a new car.' him a new car.

Past continuous Past perfect continuous

'I was hoping to keep it.' He said he'd been hoping to keep it.

Present perfect Past perfect

T've never had any He said he'd never had any

trouble with it.' trouble with it.
Future: will/shall Would/should

T'll send you all the He promised he would send me

papers.' all the papers.
Future: going to Was/were going to

'You're not going to He said I wasn't going to regret

regret buying the car.' buying the car.

• Note that a verb in the past simple in direct speech can stay the same in reported speech.

Tbought it from an old lady.'

He said he bought it from an old lady. (OR: he had bought)

• Note that if we use the past perfect in direct speech, we use the same tense in reported speech.

'When I bought the car, it **had** only **done** 10,000 miles.' He said the car **had** only **done** 10,000 miles.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Change to reported speech.

1 'It always starts first time.' 2 'It doesn't use much petrol.'

3 'I've taken it to France a couple of times.' 4 'I'll take you for a ride in it.'

Step 3

Modal verbs in reported speech

'He told me the car shouldn't give me any trouble. It ought to last for years. He also said I could ring him if I had any problems, although he might not be at home. He told me I must pay him as soon as possible.'

Direct speech

Reported speech

Can Could

'You can ring me if you have any trouble.'

He said I could ring him if I had

any trouble. Might

May 'I may not be at home.'

He said he might not be at home.

• Note that the verbs *would*, *could*, *should*, *might* and *ought do* don't change in reported speech.

'It **shouldn't** give you

He said it shouldn't give me any trouble.

any trouble.

'It **ought to** last for years.'

He said it ought to last for years.

 Must either stays the same in reported speech or changes to had to. Must is more common.

'You must pay me as soon as possible.'

He told me I must (OR had to) pay him as soon as possible.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Change to reported speech.

- 1 'You can pay me cash or give me a cheque.' He told her ...
- 2 'You must phone me if there's a problem.'
- 3 'You should use unleaded petrol.'

Step 4

Other changes in reported speech

'He said his name was Leach and he wanted £1,250 for the car. I gave him £1,000 and said I would give him the rest the following day. The next day the car wouldn't start so I rang him. The woman who answered said Leach had left the day before. Then the police rang me and said the car didn't belong to him - he'd stolen it the week before. They also said the real owner wanted his car back - that day!'

• The pronouns (I, we, me, etc.) and possessive adjectives (my, our, etc.) also change in reported speech.

Direct speech

'My name's Leach'

Reported speech

He said **his** name was Leach.

The following words also change in reported speech:

'There's nobody called Leach at this address.

tomorrow

I'll give you the rest tomorrow.

vesterday

'He left yesterday.'

last week

'He stole it last week.'

today

'He wants his car back

today.'

Note also these changes: next week/next month, etc.

this morning/evening, etc.

tonight

three days ago

that

She said there was nobody called Leach at that address. the following day or the next day

I said I would give him the rest

the following day.

the day before or the previous day She said he'd left the day before. the week before OR the previous week

They said he'd stolen it the week before.

that day

He said he wanted his car back

that day.

the following week / month, etc.

that morning/evening, etc.

that night

three days before

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Change to reported speech.

- 1 'I first met Leach two days ago.' She said she ...
- 2 'I got the money out of the bank this morning.' She said she ...
- $3\,$ 'You must return the car to the owner next weekend.' The police said she ...

'And now I've spoken to a lawyer and he says he'll see me next week but he doesn't think I'll ever get my money back. But my boyfriend said he'll find Leach and get the money.'

• Note that words and phrases in direct speech don't change in reported speech if it's still the same day or week, etc.

Direct speech

Reported speech

T'll see you **next week**.' He says he'll see me **next week**. (It's still this week when she reports what the lawyer said.)

• If the reporting verb is in the past but the situation still exists, we can keep the same tense.

T'll find Leach and get the

But my boyfriend said he'll find

money.'

Leach and get the money.

(Her boyfriend is still looking for Leach when she says this.)

• If the reporting verb is in the present, the future or the present perfect, the tense of the verb in reported speech doesn't change.

Direct speech

Reported speech

'You'll never get your money back.'

He **says** I'll never get my

money back.

Change to reported speech.

- 1 'I've lost £1000.' (Anna still hasn't got her money back.) She said she ...
- 2 'I don't think I'll buy another car.' She says she ...

CLUESTIONS

2 3 4 AND 5

- 1 1 He said it wasn't expensive. 2 He told her it had a good radio. 3 "It's got new tyres." 4 "It's very reliable."
- 2 1 He said/He told her it always started first time. 2 He said/He told her it didn't use much petrol. 3 He said/He told her he'd (had) taken it to France a couple of times. 4 He said/He told her he'd (would) take her for a ride in it.
- 3 1 He told her she could pay him cash or give him a cheque. 2 He told her she must/had to
- phone him if there was a problem. 3 He told her she should use unleaded petrol.
- 4 1 She said she'd first met Leach two days before. 2 She said she'd got the money out of the bank that morning. 3 The police said she must/had to return the car to the owner the following weekend.
- 5 1 She said she's lost £1000. 2 She says she doesn't think she'll buy another car.

Reported questions, commands, etc.: She asked me where I was from

Nick, a British tourist, is telling his American girlfriend about the questions he was asked at Kennedy Airport, New York. 'To start with the immigration officer asked me where I was from and why I'd come to the States. That wasn't a problem. But then she wanted to know how much money I had. When I told her, she said \$800 wasn't enough for three weeks. She wondered why I hadn't brought more. She then asked me if I intended to work. She wanted to know whether I really planned to go back to the UK after three weeks."

Step 1

Changes in reported questions

• In reported questions, the word order is subject + verb. This is not the same as in the direct question.

Direct question verb + subject

Reported question subject + verb

'Where are you from?'

She asked me where I was from. (NOT She asked me where was I from.)

'Why have you come?'

She asked me why I had come. (NOT She asked me why had I come.)

Note: There's no question mark at the end of a reported question.

 Notice how questions in the present simple and the past simple change in reported speech.

Direct question 'How much money do you have?'

Reported question She asked me how much money I had.

'Where did you buy your ticket?'

She asked me where

I bought my ticket. (OR I had bought)

• If there's no question word like why, who, where, etc. in the direct question, we use if or whether in the reported question.

Direct question

Reported question 'Do you intend to work?' Do you really plan to go back?'

She asked me if I intended to work. She wanted to know whether I really planned to go back.

• We often use these verbs in reported questions: ask want to know wonder (NOT say)

Direct question 'How much money do you have?' 'Why haven't you brought more?'

Reported question

She wanted to know how much money I had. (OR She asked ...) She wondered why I hadn't brought more.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Change to reported questions.

1 'What's your name?' She asked me ...

2 'When are you returning to Britain?' She asked me ...

3 'Do you have friends in the USA?' She wanted to know ...

Step 2

The infinitive with to in reported commands, requests, etc.

'Then she told me to show her my return ticket. She warned me not to try to get a job. She also asked me to give her my address in the States. I told her I was staying with you in New York. She said New York could be a bit dangerous, and she advised me not to carry a lot of money on me.'

 We normally use this construction in reported commands, warnings, requests and advice.

subject + verb + object + infinitive with to

She told me to show her my ticket.

Pirect speech Reported speech

Direct speech Commands

'Show me your ticket.' She told me to show her my ticket. 'Don't try She warned me not to try to get a job!' to get a job.

Requests 'Can you give me your address in the States?'

Advice 'You shouldn't carry a lot of money on you.' She asked me to give her my address in the States.

She advised me not to carry a lot of money on me.

• Note that in reported requests with the verb *ask*, we can sometimes use the construction *ask* (*someone*) *for something*.

She asked me to give her my address in the States. OR She **asked (me) for** my address in the States.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Change to reported speech.

1 'Show me your passport!'

2 'Can you fill in an immigration form?'

3 'You shouldn't go to some parts of Manhattan.'

Step 3

Other reporting verbs

'Then she offered to give me the address of the American Youth Hostel organisation. She explained that there were hundreds of hostels all over the States. She suggested I visited Boston, where she came from. I promised to go there, if I had time. She apologised for asking me so many questions. She reminded me to be careful.'

• We use *agree*, *invite*, *offer*, *promise*, *refuse*, *remind*, *threaten* as reporting verbs with this construction.

subject + verb(+ object) + infinitive with toSheofferedto give me the address.

(Direct speech: 'I'll give you the address.')

She reminded me to be careful.

(Direct speech: 'Don't forget to be careful.')

I promised

to go there.

(Direct speech: 'I'll certainly go there.')

• We can use *add, admit, agree, comment, claim, complain, deny, explain, insist, mention, promise, remind, suggest* as reporting verbs with this construction.

verb + that clause

She suggested (that) I visited Boston.

(Direct speech: 'Why don't you visit Boston?')

She explained that there were hundreds of hostels

(Direct speech: 'You see, there are hundreds of hostels.')

• We use *apologise for + -ing* as a reporting verb. She apologised for asking me so many questions. (Direct speech: 'I'm sorry I asked you so many questions.')

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Change to reported speech.

1 'I'll show you on a map.' She offered ...

2 'Why don't you go to New England.' She suggested ...

3 'It's the most beautiful part of the States.' She added ...

4 'Remember. Don't try to get a job.' She reminded me ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 She asked me what my name was. 2 She asked me when I was returning to Britain.
 3 She wanted to know if I had friends in the USA.
- 2 1 She told me to show her my passport.2 She asked me to fill in an immigration form.
- 3 She advised me not to go to some parts of Manhattan.
- 3 1 She offered to show me on a map. 2 She suggested I went to New England. 3 She added that it was the most beautiful part of the States. 4 She reminded me that I mustn't (OR shouldn't) try to get a job.

The definite article: *the* (1)

We noticed the advertisement in the travel agent's. 'Going to the USA? Go with the airline that really looks after you, the one that gives you real value for money. The honest airline. Fly USAir!' The price was so low we booked the tickets the same day.

Step 1

The form and pronunciation of the

• The definite article has only got one form: *the*. It is used before singular and plural nouns:

the tickets the same day

• The is pronounced /ðə/

before words beginning with a consonant (b, d, y, etc.):

the travel agent's the price

before vowels that have a consonant sound:

the USA /ðə ju: es eɪ/ the one /ðə wʌn/

• *The* is pronounced /ði:/ before words starting with a vowel sound (*a*, *e*, *i*, etc.). *the advertisement the easy way the honest airline*

HECK QUESTIONS

How do you pronounce *the* before these words? Write /ðə/ or /ði:/.

1 the / / holiday 2 the airport / / 3 the / / United States 4 the / / Americans

Step 2

The basic use of the

We phoned for a taxi. The taxi was late. On the way to the airport there was a traffic jam on the motorway. Because of the traffic jam we arrived at the airport late, at half past twelve. The flight left at quarter past one.

• We use *the* when we talk about a particular person or thing. Note the difference between:

We phoned for a taxi. (Any taxi. Not a specific taxi.)

and *The taxi* was late. (The particular taxi they phoned for.)

See also: *The flight* left at quarter past one.

(The particular flight they had tickets for.)

• Note also that we use the indefinite article *a*, *an* when a noun is mentioned for the first time. After that we use the definite article *the* with that noun.

We phoned for a taxi. The taxi was late.

There was **a traffic jam** on the motorway. Because of **the traffic jam** we arrived at the airport late.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences with a/an or the.

- 1 ... taxi they phoned for arrived late at their house, at quarter past twelve.
- 2 ... taxi-driver didn't say he was sorry.
- 3 ... traffic jam was caused by ... accident on ... motorway. ... car had collided with ... lorry.

It was the longest flight I'd ever been on (and also the most expensive!). We left London in the afternoon. After an hour we were flying over the south of Ireland and after 7 hours we were flying over the centre of New York - and it was still the afternoon! Out of the window on the right we could see Manhattan, and on the left the Statue of Liberty.

We also use the

- with superlatives:
 the longest flight the most expensive flight
- with parts of the day to say when something happens:
 in the afternoon in the morning
 in the evening (BUT at night)
- with words which describe geographical position and place:
 the south of Ireland the centre of New York
 the window on the right

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete these sentences.

- 1 We sat at ... back of the plane.
- 2 ... best part of the flight was the in-flight movie, ... worst was the coffee!
- 3 New York is north-east of the United States.
- 4 At two o'clock afternoon in London, it's nine o'clock morning in New York.

Step 4

When we don't use the

On the plane we had lunch and dinner. When we arrived in New York we just wanted to go to bed. We went by bus to the centre of town. It was Saturday, so the streets of Manhattan weren't too crowded. Most New Yorkers don't go to work on Saturdays; they stay at home in the suburbs. Our hotel was on 42nd Street. We took a taxi. The taxi-driver was Puerto Rican and he spoke mainly Spanish. I didn't learn Spanish at school.

We don't use the

- in the phrases in bed/to bed, at work/to work, at home.
 we wanted to go to bed they don't go to work
 they stay at home
- before days, months and festivals in phrases like: It was Saturday. They don't go to work on Saturdays. in June at Christmas before Easter
- before meals in sentences like: We had lunch and dinner.
- before school subjects: *I didn't learn* **Spanish** at school.
- before time expressions like: last week next month next Monday
- in the phrases by bus, by train, etc.: We went by bus.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4 Put in the where necessary.

- 1 We had ... breakfast at ... home in London before we left.
- 2 ... bus station was on ... 38th Street.
- 3 We went to ... hotel by ... taxi.
- 4 We're flying home ... next Thursday.

Step 5 Other cases where *the* is or is not used

The taxi driver took us all over Manhattan. We saw the Hudson River, the Empire State Building, the Metropolitan Opera House and Fifth Avenue, where the rich and the famous do their shopping. On the sidewalks there were people from China, Italy, the West Indies, Africa and Asia. Forty minutes later we arrived at the Wellington Hotel on 42nd Street and the taxi-driver asked for \$78! Our room was on the fifth floor. In our room we looked at a map of New York for the first time. The hotel was only 200m from the bus station! That taxi-driver must think the English are stupid!

We use the:

- with the names of rivers, oceans, and groups of mountains and islands. the Hudson River the Atlantic the Rocky Mountains the Azores BUT not with the names of lakes and individual mountains and islands. Lake Eyrie Mount Everest Mallorca
- with the names of buildings like cinemas, hotels, etc. the Wellington Hotel the Empire State Building the Metropolitan Opera House BUT not with the names of churches, castles, palaces, squares, streets, etc. St Patrick's Cathedral Windsor Castle 42nd Street Buckingham Palace Washington Square Fifth Avenue
- with the names of 'plural' countries like: the United States the West Indies the Netherlands and note also: the United Kingdom.

BUT not with the names of most countries and continents: Puerto Rico Japan Spain Africa Europe Asia America North America

CHECK QUESTIONS 5a

Put in the where necessary.

- 1 ... United Nations Headquarters faces ... East River.
- 2 ...White House is probably ... most famous building in ... United States.
- 3 ... Rocky Mountains are in ... west of ... America.

We also use the

• when we use an adjective (for example: English) to refer to the people of a

the English the French the Dutch the Spanish the Japanese the Chinese BUT when we use a plural noun (Americans) to refer to the people of a country or a continent, the is normally optional.

(the) Americans (the) Puerto Ricans (the) Italians (the) Europeans

- with an adjective to describe groups of people. the rich the famous
- with ordinal numbers: *the first the third the fifth* (5th) floor etc. BUT not with positions in a race, a competition, etc. He came third in the race.

CHECK QUESTIONS 5b Complete the sentences, using the where necessary.

- 1 ... first American we met said he preferred ... Irish to ... English.
- 2 ... Americans seem to work harder than ... British.
- 3 ... Long Island is where many of ... rich and ... famous live.

Step 6

When we don't use the before school, hospital, church, etc.

On Sunday we went to church. We went to the church on Broadway. On the way back to the hotel we saw a shooting at the university on 39th Street and two students were taken to hospital.

• We don't use the when we're talking about the main purpose or use of these places: church, hospital, school, university, college, prison, court.

On Sunday we went to church.

Two students were taken to hospital.

• We use the before these words when we're talking about a particular church, a particular university, etc.

We went to the church on Broadway.

We saw a shooting at **the** university.

CHECK QUESTIONS 6

Complete the sentences, using the where necessary.

- 1 Our hotel manager went to ... school in England, then went to ... university in the
- 2 The New York police arrested a man for the shooting. He was a cleaner at ... university.
- 3 He'll appear in ... court next week. He'll definitely go to ... prison.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS

- 1 1/ðə/ 2/ði:/ 3/ðə/ 4/ði:/
- 2 1 The 2 The 3 The an the A a
- 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 AND 6 3 1 the 2 The the 3 in the 4 in the
 - 4 2 The bus station 3 the hotel
- 5a 1 The the 2 The the 3 The Rocky Mountains the west
- 5b 1 The the the 2 (The) the 3 the rich and (the) famous
- **6** 2 the

The definite article: the (2)

Life isn't simple any more. The world is a dangerous place. Water and food are often polluted. Chemicals, additives and pesticides are everywhere. They're in the water we drink and the food we buy. We need clean water and clean air. We need food that is produced without additives and pesticides. Life in the big cities of the world is unhealthy and unsafe. The lakes and the rivers of Europe are dying. Do we care more about nature or profit? We need better public transport, not new roads. The people of Britain need jobs, not unemployment. We need generosity, not selfishness. We need the Alternative Party!

Step 1 | Nouns without the

We don't use the when we use the following nouns in a general sense:

- plural nouns. Chemicals, additives and pesticides are everywhere.
- uncountable nouns. Water and food are often polluted.
- abstract nouns. Life isn't simple any more. We need **generosity**, not **selfishness**.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which is right, A or B?

- 1 ... is becoming more difficult. (A Life B The life)
- 2 ... are damaging our food. (A The pesticides B Pesticides)
- 3 People are worried about ... (A the pollution B pollution)

Step 2

When to use the before nouns

• We use the with plural and uncountable nouns when we mean particular people or things.

The people of Britain need jobs. the water we drink the food we buy The lakes and the rivers of Europe are dying.

Here, we don't mean all people, all water, all food, all lakes and rivers. We mean particular water (the water we drink), particular food (the food we buy), etc.

 Note that we sometimes talk about a particular thing, but use it in a general sense. So we don't use the.

Life in the big cities of the world is unhealthy and unsafe.

(Not all life in the world, but all life in the big cities, which is still a general idea.) We need food that is produced without additives.

(Not all food, but all food that is produced without additives)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences, using $\it the$ where necessary.

- 1 All over the world ... cars cause ... pollution.
- 2 Is there room on ... roads of Britain for ... cars we're making?
- 3 Nowadays ... people seem to prefer ... food with ... additives.

Amy Clarke's a university student. She lives in a house with a dozen other students. She shares a room with a friend. Money is usually a problem, so Amy's got a job. She works two evenings a week. She's a waitress at a pizza restaurant. She earns £5 an hour so she makes about £30 an evening. She has to wear a uniform. 'I have an enormous breakfast, but I don't have lunch. I have a big dinner at work - a huge pizza and an ice cream. It's an interesting job and I meet a lot of people."

Step 1

A or an?

- We use a/a/b before words that begin with a consonant sound. **a** restaurant **a** part-time job **a** uniform
- We use an/ən/ before words which begin with a vowel sound. an ice cream an interesting job an hour

Note: The first sound in *hour* is the vowel sound /auə/. We don't pronounce the h, so we say an hour. But note a house because we pronounce the h. Note also *a university student*, *a uniform*. The first sound in these words is the consonant sound /j/ not the vowel sound /ʌ/.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put a or an before these words:

1 job 2 union 3 unusual name 4 enormous ice cream 5 holiday 6 honest man

Step 2 | Main use of a/an (the indefinite article)

- We usually use a/an with singular countable nouns. a house a friend an evening
- We use a/an when we talk about a person or a thing for the first time. We don't identify the person or thing.

She lives in a house. (We don't say which house.)

She shares a room with a friend. (We don't say which room or which friend.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in a/an where necessary.

- 1 She works in restaurant in street near the station.
- 2 For lunch she only has apple and glass of milk.

Step 3

Other uses of a/an

- We use *a/an* before occupations, jobs and religions, etc. She's **a** student. She's **a** waitress. He's **a** Muslim.
- We use a/an when we talk about numbers or quantities. ${\it a}$ dozen other students ${\it a}$ lot of people \$100 (${\it a}$ hundred pounds) ${\it a}$ few friends
- We can use a/an with the meaning per. two evenings a week \$4 an hour \$2 a kilo
- We also use a/an in exclamations like: What **a** huge pizza! What **an** interesting job!

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in a/an where necessary.

Amy's friend works in pub. She's barmaid. She works three evenings week. She earns \$4.50 hour.

Step 4

When not to use a/an

We don't use a/an:

- before uncountable nouns (see Unit 59). *Money* is usually a problem for students. (NOT A money)
- before the names of meals (*breakfast*, *lunch*, *dinner*, etc.). *I don't have lunch*. (NOT I don't have a lunch.)

But if we use an adjective before the meal, we must use a/an: I have a big dinner at work. (NOT I have big dinner)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Put in a/an where necessary.

Amy likes good food, but food's expensive for student, and she doesn't like spending money. She has big breakfast; she only has apple for lunch, but she has dinner at work.

Step 5

The plural of a/an: some + noun, or noun on its own

In the street where Amy lives there are some people who don't like students. They say students have an easy life and don't do any work. Is this true? In fact, students usually have very little money. Some students get jobs to pay for their food and accommodation. Some students borrow money from their parents. A lot of Amy's friends are students. They don't all have rich parents. And they can't all find part-time jobs.

We often use *some* as the plural of a/an when we mean a certain number. There are some people who don't like students.
 (A certain number of people, but not all.)

 Some students borrow money from their parents.
 (Not all students borrow money from their parents.)

We don't use some:

- when we're interested in the things or people themselves, not the number of them.
 They get jobs to pay for their food and accommodation.
 They don't all have rich parents.
- when we talk about things or people in general.
 They say students have an easy life. (= all students)
 Students usually have very little money.

(For the use of *some* with uncountable nouns see Unit 61.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Put in some where necessary.

- 1 There are people who say that students have an easy life.
- 2 There are very nice students who live in our house.
- 3 People understand students' problems, and people don't.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

- 1 1 a job 2 a union 3 an unusual name 4 an enormous ice cream 5 a holiday 6 an honest man
- 2 1 a restaurant a street 2 an apple a glass
- 3 a pub a barmaid a week an hour
- 4 a student a big breakfast an apple
- 5 1 (some) people 2 some very nice students 3 Some people some people

Nouns: singular and plural: book/books, child/children

ROBBERY IN STAPLETON ROAD

.

Thieves stole cameras and videos from two shops in Stapleton Road yesterday. They also took several boxes of video cassettes and hundreds of audio cassettes.

FIGHT IN CITY CENTRE CAR PARK

.

Two police officers were injured in a fight last night. One policeman lost four teeth. Three other people were also injured. The police were called to the Central car park where there was a fight involving about two dozen young men and women. Dozens of cars and two buses were damaged.

Step 1

The plural form of nouns

- Most nouns have a plural ending in -s.

 a camera > two cameras an officer > two officers

 (For the spelling of plural endings, see Appendix 3.)
- This final -s is pronounced in two different ways: /s/ after the consonants c, p, t, k, f and th: shops, cassettes /z/ after all other consonants and after vowels (a, o, etc.): thieves cameras videos cars

When the plural ends in *-es* (after *c*, *s*, *x*, *z*, *ss*, *sh*, *ch*) *-es* is pronounced /ız/: bo**xes** bu**ses**

• A few common words have irregular plural forms.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
man	men	foot	feet
woman	women	tooth	teeth
person	people	child	children
(Persons is	very formal.)	mouse	mice

- These are sometimes part of other words: policewoman > policewomen grandchild > grandchildren a Frenchman > Frenchmen (BUT a German > two Germans)
- In compound nouns the more important word takes the plural form.
 police officer > police officers credit card > credit cards
 video cassette > video cassettes car park > car parks
- Some nouns (usually numbers) don't change in the plural.

 a dozen > two dozen a hundred > two hundred
 a thousand > two thousand a million > two million

 BUT when these words are used to talk about an indefinite number, they have the plural -s.

Dozens of cars were damaged. hundreds of audio cassettes

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in the plural forms.

1 a policeman, two ... 2 a businesswoman, two ... 3 a young person, two ... 4 a police station, two ... 5 an Englishman, two ... 6 a thousand, ... of people

United buy Baresco

Manchester United have paid £8 million for Baresco, the Italian goalkeeper. 'People in Manchester want to see the world's best players,' commented the manager.

New shop opens .

Clothes are cheaper at Stax. If your family need new clothes, why not try Stax? 'I bought some trousers for £.25,' said Benny Sampson. 'Nowadays £25 isn't a lot to pay for a pair of trousers. Jeans are cheap too. And my wife bought some tights for only £,2.99!'

Government says politics is 'honest'

.

The government has formed a new committee. The committee have produced a document called 'Politics in Britain is an honest profession'.

- A few nouns look singular, but are used with a plural verb. people police Manchester United (or any sports team) **People want** to see the world's best players. (NOT wants) Manchester United have bought (NOT has)
- Collective or group nouns can be followed by a singular verb (if we're thinking of the group as a single unit), or by a plural verb (if we're thinking of the group as a number of individuals). The most common are: family, government, team, crowd, army, audience, company, group.

If your family need new clothes My family isn't very big.

The government has formed a committee.

The government have discussed the problem.

 When we think of a certain quantity of money, distance or time as a single unit, we use a singular verb.

£25 isn't a lot of money to pay for a pair of trousers.

Stax is two miles from town. Two miles is a long way to walk.

• Some nouns are only plural. The most common are: belongings, clothes, contents, headquarters, savings, surroundings, thanks.

Clothes are cheaper at Stax.

• There's another group of nouns that are also only plural: glasses, pants, knickers, pyjamas, jeans, scissors, shorts, tights, trousers.

I bought **some trousers** for £25. (NOT a trousers)

Jeans are cheap. She bought some tights. (NOT a tights)

Before these words you can also use the phrase a pair of + a singular verb.

A pair of trousers costs £25.

• Some nouns end in -s, but are followed by a singular verb: news, politics, mathematics, physics, economics.

Politics is an honest profession.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Choose the correct form of the verb.

- 1 Clothes (isn't/aren't) cheap nowadays.
- 2 People (doesn't/don't) buy clothes that are too expensive.
- 3 \$60 (is/are) a lot of money for a pair of jeans.
- 4 The government (is/are) trying to keep prices low.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 policemen 2 businesswomen 3 young people 4 police stations 5 Englishmen 6 thousands
- 2 1 aren't 2 don't 3 is 4 is trying/are trying

Countable and uncountable nouns: cars, traffic, pollution

Hi! You're listening to GWR Radio. What a terrible morning! There have been several accidents on the roads. A number of people were hurt in an accident on the M32 motorway when two cars crashed near Junction 4. And there are a few problems for rail travellers. Many trains between cities in the west and London are running twenty to thirty minutes late.

Step 1 | Countable nouns: car, problem, etc.

• Countable nouns are people or things which we can count. They have both a singular and a plural form.

Singular	Plural	
train	trains	
city	cities	
problem	problems	

- We can use *a* or *an* or numbers with a countable noun. a car two cars a minute twenty minutes
- We use these words and phrases only with countable nouns: many several a few a number of both a couple of several accidents a number of people a few problems
- Note the use of the exclamation What ...! Singular: What a terrible morning! (NOT What terrible morning!) Plural: What terrible drivers!

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Which are the eight countable nouns in this news report?

'Four cows escaped from the market at Winford this morning. It took three police officers and several farmers over an hour to catch them. Two old women were hurt when the cows ran down the main street.'

Step 2

Uncountable nouns: air, courage, etc.

An explosion has destroyed a chemical factory in Brislington. Thanks to the courage of the firefighters no-one was hurt. The air around the factory is still thick with smoke, and, for their own safety, residents have been told not to drink the water. Residents are worried about their children's health and the damage to the environment caused by the explosion.

- Uncountable nouns are things that we can't count. They have no plural form. Air, for example, is an uncountable noun. We can't say one air, two airs.
- Most uncountable nouns are: materials or substances: air, water, smoke, etc. feelings or qualities: courage, love, anger, etc. abstract ideas: safety, justice, freedom, etc.

• The exclamation $What \dots!$ (see Step 1) can be followed by an uncountable noun without a, an.

What terrible damage! (NOT What a terrible damage!)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

What are the eight uncountable nouns in the news report of the explosion at Brislington?

Step 3

Words not used with uncountable nouns

There's less violence in the St Paul's district of Bristol than there was two years ago. But many young people still have nothing to do in the evenings. Several youth leaders have asked for a new youth club. A number of local councillors have accepted the idea, but the council has very little money and the government hasn't offered financial support. So there isn't much hope that the youth club will be built.

• We can't use *a* or *an* with uncountable nouns, even if there's an adjective before the noun.

financial support (NOT a financial support)

- We can't use numbers with uncountable nouns. We can't say 'two violences'.
- We can't use these words and phrases with uncountable nouns:
 many several a few a number of both a couple of each every these those
 many young people (countable)
 But NOT many violences (uncountable)
- These words and phrases can only be used with uncountable nouns:
 (a) little very little much less

 less violence very little money there isn't much hope
 (But some people use less with countable nouns nowadays.)
- For the use of *some*, *any*, *no* with countable and uncountable nouns, see Unit 61.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Choose the correct word.

- 1 The council hasn't got (many/much) money.
- 2 The young people of St Paul's like (a/-) loud music.
- 3 That's why (a few/a little) local people don't want a youth club.

Step 4

Countable or uncountable?

Some interesting research has been done recently in the food industry. One piece of research is particularly interesting. Scientists have looked at spaghetti, which normally takes 15 minutes to cook. They've produced a spaghetti that takes only a minute to cook. They've also worked on beer. There's some good news for beer-drinkers who drive. You can now have several glasses of beer and drive your car safely afterwards. A new beer has been produced which is non-alcoholic, but which tastes like real beer.

• Some words are countable in most languages, but are uncountable in English and are used with a singular verb. The most common are: accommodation, advice, baggage, behaviour, bread, damage, equipment, evidence, furniture, garbage, homework, information, knowledge, luck, luggage, money, news, nonsense, progress, research, rubbish, spaghetti, traffic, transport, weather.

Some interesting **research has been** done. (NOT have been done) **spaghetti** which normally **takes** 15 minutes to cook (NOT take)

There's some good news. (NOT there are)

• The following words are normally uncountable, but can also have a plural use: business, grass, hair, travel, work.

Business in St Paul's is getting better. (uncountable)

Several new businesses have been started. (countable)

(businesses = 'companies, firms')

• If we want to talk about a certain quantity of these things, we normally use a countable noun + *of* + the uncountable noun.

One piece of research is particularly interesting.

You can now have several **glasses of** beer.

These words are often used in this construction:

A cup of tea/coffee, etc. A glass of beer/milk, etc.

A bottle of whisky/wine, etc. A bowl of soup/salad, etc.

A packet of sugar/flour/washing-powder, etc.

A jar of jam/marmalade, etc. A tin of salmon/soup, etc.

A loaf of bread A slice of bread/ham, etc. A piece of toast/cake, etc.

A piece of furniture/information/advice, etc.

All these phrases can be used in the plural.

Two cups of tea, a few tins of soup, etc.

- Note that with words like tea, coffee, beer, whisky we can say: I'd like a glass of beer OR I'd like a beer.

 Do you want a cup of coffee? OR Do you want a coffee?
- Many words in English for food and drink can be used sometimes as uncountable nouns (when used in a general sense), sometimes as countable nouns (when used to talk about a particular type of something).

They've looked at **spaghetti**. (spaghetti in general: uncountable)

a spaghetti that takes only a minute to cook

(a spaghetti = a particular type of spaghetti: countable)

They've worked on beer. (beer in general: uncountable)

A new beer has been produced.

(A beer = a particular type of beer: countable)

Here are some other words that can be countable or uncountable: *cheese, wine, meat, soup, coffee, tea, whisky.*

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Choose the correct word.

- 1 There (isn't/aren't) any more information about the new beer.
- 2 Progress (has/have) been made on producing non-alcoholic beer.
- 3 The English like (cheese/cheeses), but there aren't many different (cheese/cheeses) produced in Britain.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 cow, market, morning, police officer, farmer, hour, woman, street
- 2 courage, air, smoke, safety, water, health, damage, environment
- 3 1 much money 2 loud music 3 a few people
- 4 1 There isn't much information 2 Progress has been made 3 The English like cheese many different cheeses

Much, many, a lot, plenty, (very) little, (very) few A little, a few

British people eat a lot of Italian, Indian and Chinese food, and lots of junk food. Nowadays there aren't many people who have a traditional English breakfast (eggs and bacon). Many people eat cereals like cornflakes instead. They also eat a lot of things with sugar in. Shops sell plenty of biscuits - the British spend £500 million on biscuits every year! There's plenty of food for cats in the supermarkets too. The British don't spend much on their children's shoes, but they spend a lot on cat food -£250 million a year! The British drink a lot of wine nowadays. But because of the climate there aren't many vineyards so they don't make much wine. But they import 500 million litres each year!

Step 1 A lot, much, many, plenty

• We use *much* with uncountable nouns (food, wine, etc.) to talk about a quantity of something. We use it only in questions and in negative sentences.

Do they make **much** wine? They **don't** make **much** wine.

• We use many with plural nouns (people, vineyards, etc.) to talk about a number of things or people. We use it in questions and in negative sentences. (It's sometimes used in affirmative sentences, particularly at the beginning of a sentence.)

Do many people eat a traditional English breakfast?

There aren't many vineyards in Britain. Many people eat breakfast cereals.

 We use a lot of/lots of with countable and uncountable nouns to talk about a number of things or people or a quantity of something. They are used mainly in affirmative sentences, but can also be used in negative sentences and questions. Lots of means the same as a lot of. It's more informal.

They eat a lot of Chinese food. (NOT much Chinese food)

Do they eat **a lot of** Indian food? (OR **much** Indian food)

They eat a lot of things with sugar in. (More common than: many things)

They don't make a lot of wine. (OR much wine)

 We use plenty of with countable and uncountable nouns to talk about a number of things or people or a quantity of something. Plenty (of) means 'more than enough', but it's often used with the meaning of 'a lot (of)'.

There's **plenty of** food for cats. Shops sell **plenty of** biscuits.

- *Much, many, a lot, lots, plenty* can be used alone, without a noun. They don't spend **much** on children's shoes, (= much money) but they spend **a lot** on cat food. (= a lot of money)
- Note the question forms: *How much?* (with uncountable nouns) *How many?* (with countable nouns)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in much, many or a lot.

- 1 Do the British eat ... Italian food? Yes, they eat ...
- 2 How ... do they spend on their children's shoes? Not ...
- 3 Are there ... vineyards in Britain? No, there aren't ...
- 4 How ... people have a traditional English breakfast? Not ...

Many British people are unfit. They take very little exercise, and do few active sports. They eat very little fruit and very few vegetables. If you want to be healthy, you should eat a little fresh fruit every day and a few fresh vegetables. You should also take a little exercise.

• We use *little/very little* with uncountable nouns to talk about a small quantity. We use *few/very few* with plural nouns to talk about a small number. *Very little* and *very few* have a negative meaning. We use them more often than *little* and *few*.

They take very little exercise/little exercise.
(= not much exercise, not enough exercise)
They eat very few vegetables/few vegetables.
(= not many vegetables, not enough vegetables)

• A little and a few have a more positive meaning.

You should take a little exercise. (not much, but enough to be healthy)

You should eat a few fresh vegetables. (not many, but enough to be healthy)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Are these positive or negative things to do?

- 1 I eat very few vegetables. 2 I take a little exercise every day.
- 3 I do a few active sports. 4 I eat little fresh fruit.

Step 3

So much/so many too much/too many

So much food is wasted nowadays because we throw away so much. It's terrible when you think that so many people in the world don't have enough food. Many adults and children in the rich countries are overweight because they eat too much, and because there's too much sugar and fat in their diet. Many children have got bad teeth because they eat too many sweets and too much junk food.

- We use *so much* to emphasise that we're talking about a big quantity, and *so many* to emphasise that we're talking about a large number of people or things. **So much** food is wasted. **So many** people don't have enough food.
- We use *too much* and *too many* to mean 'more than necessary'. *Too many* people eat *too much*. (An excessive number eat more than is necessary.)
- *So much* and *too much* (unlike *much*) can be used in affirmative sentences. **So much** food **is wasted**. **There's too much** sugar.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Answer these questions using so much/too much/too many.

- 1 How do we waste food? We throw away ...
- 2 Do British people eat many sweets? Yes, they eat far ...
- 3 Do they eat much junk food? Yes, far ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 much/a lot of a lot 2 much much (a lot) 3 many/a lot of many/a lot 4 many many/a lot
- 2 1 Negative 2 Positive 3 Positive 4 Negative
- 3 1 We throw away so much/too much. 2 Yes, they eat far too many. 3 Yes, far too much.

Some, any, no, none

Joss and Anna have arrived at a camp site. Joss is going to the shop.

Joss: I'll get some burgers and some fruit. And we need some milk too.

Anna: OK. Have we got any cooking oil?

Joss: Yes, there's some in that bag. Oh no, I didn't bring any matches.

Anna: You'll have to buy some.

Joss: What about bread?

Anna: We haven't got any. Get some bread rolls.

Step 1

Basic uses of some, any

• Some and any can be used with uncountable nouns: Get some fruit. Have we got any cooking oil? and plural countable nouns.

Get some burgers. I didn't bring any matches.

• We usually use *some* in affirmative sentences and *any* in questions and negative sentences. (But see Steps 3 and 4.)

We need some milk. Have we got any cooking oil? I didn't bring any matches.

• Some and any can be used alone, without a noun. There's **some** in that bag. We haven't got **any**.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in some or any.

- 1 Joss bought ... burgers from the shop.
- 2 He also bought ... milk, because they didn't have ...
- 3 Did they bring ... cooking oil with them? No, but they need ...

Step 2

Uses of no, none

The camp site isn't very good. There are no showers, and there's no hot water in the washroom. It's got no public telephone. It's difficult at night because there are no lights at the entrance and there are none in the toilets.

• No and none are used with a verb in the affirmative.

There are no showers. (= There aren't any showers.)

There are none. (= There aren't any.)

No/none with an affirmative verb = *any* with a negative verb.

- *No* is used with countable and uncountable nouns. *There are no showers*. (= There aren't any showers) *There's no hot water*. (= There isn't any hot water.)
- *None* is used alone, without a noun. *There are none* in the toilets. (= There aren't any in the toilets.)
- We often use no/none with there is/there are and have got.
 There's no hot water. It's got no public telephone.
 With other verbs we normally use not + any.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Put in no or none.

- 1 This camp site is awful! There are ... doors on the toilets!
- 2 There's ... paper in the toilets, and there's ... room in the rubbish bins.
- 3 We've got ... camping gas left and they've got ... at the shop.

Step 3

Some used in questions

Joss is talking to the people in the next tent.

Joss: Have you got any camping gas?

Man: Yes, we have.

Joss: Could we have some, please?

Man: Yes, no problem. Would you like some coffee? We've just made

some.

• We use *some* in questions when we expect the answer *Yes*. Could we have **some**, please?

(Joss knows that they've got some camping gas, so he expects the answer Yes.) BUT: Have you got any camping gas?

(Here Joss doesn't know if they've got any camping gas or not, so he uses any.)

• We also use some in offers. Would you like **some** coffee?

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Anna and Joss are having supper with the people in the next tent. Complete the sentences with some or any.

- 1 Would you like ... spaghetti, Joss? Yes, please.
- 2 Have you got ... cheese in your tent? We haven't got ... here.
- 3 Yes, we have. Shall I go and get ...?

Step 4

Any used in affirmative sentences

A notice in the camp site office said:

Any campers making a noise after 11 p.m. will be asked to leave the camp site. If you need any information, ask at the camp office. If you have any problems, consult the manager at any time.

 Any can be used in affirmative sentences where it means it doesn't matter which/how much/when, etc. It's often used after If...

Any campers making a noise after 11 p.m. will be asked to leave. If you need any information, ask at the camp office.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Complete the sentences with *some* or *any*.

- 1 If you need extra blankets, there are ... in the camp office.
- 2 Don't damage ... equipment on the camp site. ... damage must be paid for.
- 3 Please leave ... money or valuables at the camp office.

- 1 1 some 2 some any 3 any some
- 2 1 no 2 no no 3 no none

- 3 1 some 2 any any 3 some
- 4 1 some 2 any Any 3 any

All/everything, everybody All/every/each whole

Natasha's a refugee. She's escaped from the war in her own country and has come to live in Eccleston, a village in the south of England. She's feeling very strange.

Everything is new. Everything is different. But everybody is very kind to her. They give her everything she needs. They do all they can to help her. She thanks everyone for their kindness with a smile, because she can't speak English. All she can say is 'Hello'. She isn't happy because all she wants to do is go home.

Step 1

All or everything/everybody/everyone?

• When we mean 'all the things' we usually say *everything*, not *all*. When we mean 'all the people' we use *everybody* or *everyone*, not *all*.

Everything is new. (NOT All is new.)

Everybody is kind to her. (NOT All are kind to her.)

She thanks everyone for their kindness. (NOT She thanks all ...)

- Everything and everybody/everyone are followed by a verb in the singular. Everything's (is) different. (NOT Everything are different.) Everybody is kind. (NOT Everybody are kind.)
- But we use they, them, their after everybody/everyone.
 Everybody is very kind to her. They give her everything she needs.
 She thanks everyone for their kindness. (NOT: his kindness)
- Note that we can use *all* followed by a relative clause. It has two meanings: 'everything' or 'the only thing(s)'.

They do all they can to help her. (= They do everything they can)

All she wants to do is go home. (= The only thing she wants to do)

We usually leave out the relative pronoun *that* after *all*.

All (that) she can say is 'Hello'.

Note: We say *All she can say* or *All that she can say*, but NOT All what she can say.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Rewrite the sentences, using all, everything or everybody/everyone.

- 1 All the things Natasha sees are new. 2 All the people want to help her.
- 3 The only thing she can do is wait for the war to stop.

Step 2

All, every or each?

All the families in Eccleston have offered to help Natasha. People have been to every house to collect money for her. All the money goes into a special bank account. There are three pubs in the village. The owner of each pub is collecting money too. They've each collected about £100. The newsagent has also asked each of his customers to give money. Some people are decorating Natasha's flat. They're painting every room. Each room's a different colour. Each colour is part of her national flag.

All and every often mean the same.
 All the families in Eccleston = Every family in Eccleston all the houses in the village = every house in the village
 Note: every is followed by a singular noun.

But we use all not every with uncountable nouns.
 All the money goes into a special bank account. (NOT every money)

• We use *every* and *each* + a singular noun when we talk about all the people or all the things in a group. We can often use either.

Every family in Eccleston **has** offered to help Natasha. OR **Each** family in Eccleston **has** offered to help Natasha.

• But, if we see the people or the things individually, if we talk about them separately, we normally use *each*.

They're painting **every room**. (= **all** the rooms)

They're painting each room a different colour. (= the rooms one by one)

We can use each (NOT every) on its own or with of.
 They've each collected about \$100.
 The newsagent has asked each of his customers to give money.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in every or each.

1 Natasha needs ... penny she can get.

2 The council has asked ... shop in the village to give money.

3 They've asked ... shop to give \$30.

4 ... of the two farmers in Eccleston has given \$50.

Step 3

Whole

Natasha's whole life has changed. She had spent the whole of her life in Akabi, a mountain village. But now the whole of Akabi has been destroyed and she's lost her whole family. On the day she arrived in Britain she was very hungry and tired. They gave her bread, fish and milk. She ate a whole loaf of bread and a whole tin of tuna and she drank all the milk.

- We use whole mainly with singular countable nouns.
 Natasha's whole life has changed. (= Her life has changed totally.)
 She's lost her whole family. (= all her family)
 She ate a whole loaf of bread. (= She ate a complete loaf of bread.)
- We don't use *whole* with uncountable nouns. *She drank all the milk*. (NOT the whole milk)
- We can use the phrase *the whole of* + a noun: *She had spent the whole of her life* in *Akabi*. (= her whole life) We must use this phrase with the names of places.

The whole of Akabi has been destroyed. (NOT the whole Akabi)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite the sentences, using whole.

- 1 She drank all the bottle of milk.
- 2 Natasha's village has been completely destroyed.
- 3 All Eccleston is trying to help Natasha.

There are refugees like Natasha all over the world. They know all about war and suffering. Natasha's still so unhappy that she often cries all through the night. She'd like to tell her friends in Eccleston all about her life in Akabi. But she can't speak English yet.

We can use all before prepositions (about, along, down, over, round, through).
 There are refugees all over the world. (= over the whole world)
 They know all about war and suffering. (= everything about)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Rewrite the sentences, using all + a preposition.

- 1 There are refugees living everywhere in Britain.
- 2 Natasha wants to tell people the whole story of her experiences.

Step 5

All/every/the whole in time expressions

Natasha dreams about her terrible experiences every night. Sometimes she's awake all night. Her doctor has given her some tablets that she has to take every three hours. And every two weeks she goes to see a psychiatrist. She has an English lesson every day. Her teacher comes to the flat every morning at 10 a.m. and they spend all morning together. Every Wednesday she spends the whole day at college. She has a busy life now, but all day she thinks of her family and friends.

• In time expressions with words like *minute*, *hour*, *day*, *week*, *month*, *year*, *Monday*, *Tuesday*, etc. we use *every* to say how often something happens.

Every morning at 10 a.m. her teacher comes to the flat.

She dreams about her terrible experiences every night.

Every two weeks she goes to see a psychiatrist.

• We use all or the whole with morning, evening, day, week, month, year, etc. to say how long something lasts.

They spend all morning together. (OR the whole morning)

She spends the whole day at college. (OR all day)

Sometimes she's awake all night. (OR the whole night)

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Put in all or every.

- 1 She goes to college ... Wednesday.
- 2 She's at college ... day on Wednesdays.
- 3 Her English teacher comes to see her ... day.
- 4 Yesterday they spent ... evening listening to music.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

- 1 1 Everything Natasha sees is new.
 - 2 Everybody (Everyone) wants to help her.
 - 3 All she can do is wait for the war in her country to stop.
- 2 1 every penny 2 every shop 3 each shop 4 Each
- 3 1 She drank the whole bottle of milk.
- 2 Natasha's whole village/The whole of Natasha's village has been destroyed.
- 3 The whole of Eccleston is trying to help Natasha.
- 4 1 There are refugees living all over Britain. 2 Natasha wants to tell people all about her experiences.
- 5 1 every 2 all 3 every 4 all

All (of), most (of), some (of), etc. Both (of), neither (of), either (of)

Most British people watch a lot of television. Most young people watch more than 20 hours a week. Most of the young people interviewed recently in a survey said they watched at least 24 hours a week. And some of them watched up to 28 hours.

Some old people watch 40 hours a week. Some of them aren't really interested in half the programmes. Most of the time they watch because they're bored or lonely.

Many viewers have special interests. Some watch all the wildlife programmes, for example, and some watch all the sport.

Some people say that all violence on TV should be banned. They say that some of it encourages children to be violent. But the TV companies say that all parents should control what their children watch. All of them are responsible.

Most of us see television as a problem. But none of the viewers interviewed recently have thrown their televisions away! None of them has stopped watching!

Step 1

All, most, some, none, etc. + noun or + of

- We use:
 - all, most, some, any, many, a few + plural noun all, most, some, any, much + uncountable noun.

 most people some old people all violence all parents ('Most' = 'nearly all'. 'Some' = 'a part, but not all'.)
- *All, most*, etc. have a general, unlimited meaning. *All of, most of*, etc. have a more specific, limited meaning. Compare:

Most young people watch 24 hours a week. (= most young people in general) most of the young people interviewed (= a specific group of young people)

- But we often leave out of after all and half.

 all (of) the sport half (of) the programmes
- With all, most, some, etc. we must use of before a pronoun (it, us, you, them). some of it (= some of the violence. NOT some it) most of us (= most of the people in Britain. NOT most us) all of them (= all (of) the parents. NOT all them)
- We can use *all, most, some*, etc. as pronouns on their own. *Some* watch all the wildlife programmes. (= some viewers)
- We can use a singular or plural verb after none of.
 None of the viewers interviewed have thrown their televisions away! None of them has stopped watching! (Here, we could say has thrown or have stopped.)
 (For all, see also Unit 62.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in of the or nothing at all.

- 1 Some ... people think there's too much violence on television.
- 2 Many ... people I know don't watch much television.
- 3 I don't watch any ... programmes my friends like.
- 4 Not all ... television programmes are of high quality.

Both Mr and Mrs Hope watch television regularly. So do their children. They all enjoy soaps and wildlife programmes. But both parents think that the children watch too much. Both their children watch television for four hours a day. Neither child reads very much. And neither of them has other interests. If Mrs Hope asks either of the children to turn the television off, there's usually an argument. For both of them television is a drug. Neither Mr Hope nor his wife know what to do. They've both talked about the problem a lot, with other parents. It seems they're all experiencing the same problem. They can either force the children to watch less often, or they can get rid of the television.

 We use both, either, neither when we talk about two people or things. Note the possible constructions:

both/either/neither +	(of) +	(the, etc.) +	noun/pronoun
Both			parents
Both		the	parents
Both	of	the	parents
Both	of		them (NOT both them)
Either/Neither			child
Either/Neither	of	the	children
Either/Neither	of		them

- We can say both X and Y, neither X nor Y, either X or Y. Both Mr and Mrs Hope watch television regularly. Neither Mr Hope nor his wife know what to do. They can either force them to watch less often, or they can ...
- After Neither of ... and Neither ... nor ... we can use a singular or plural verb. Neither of them has other interests. (OR have) Neither Mr Hope nor his wife know what to do. (OR knows) BUT Neither + noun is always followed by a singular verb.

Neither child reads very much.

 All and both, used on their own, usually come in mid-position (before the main verb or between the auxiliary verb and the main verb).

They all eniov soaps and wildlife programmes. They've both talked about the problem a lot.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in both, either of or neither of.

- 1 ... children watch television too often.
- 2 ... them reads books.
- 3 There are two possible solutions. Mr Hope doesn't like ... them.

Add the words in brackets to the sentences.

- 4 They want to solve the television problem. (all)
- 5 The two children have agreed to watch less television. (both)

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1. 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Some people 2 Many of the people 3 any of the programmes 4 Not all television programmes
- 2 1 Both children 2 Neither of them 3 either of them 4 They all want to solve the television problem. 5 The two children have both agreed to watch less television.

Demonstratives: *This, that, these, those*

Polly and James are at the beach. James has just had a swim.

James: Can I borrow that towel?

Polly: No, this towel's mine. That's your towel over there.

James: Oh, OK.

Polly: Do you want one of these chicken sandwiches?

James: No thanks. But I'd like one of those apples. ... Thanks. Did you

see? I swam out to those rocks.

Polly: Which rocks?

James: Those over there. Where that man is now.

Polly: Which man?

James: That man with the mask on.

Step 1

Main use of demonstratives this, that, these, those

• We use *this* + a singular noun for something which is near the speaker. *This towel's mine*. (This towel **here**.)

We use *that* + singular noun for something further away. *Can I borrow that towel?* (That towel there.)

• We use *these* + plural noun for things near the speaker. *Do you want one of these sandwiches?* (These sandwiches here.)

We use *those* + plural noun for things further away. *I'd like one of those apples.* (Those apples there.)

- Note that this, that, these, those can be used as adjectives or pronouns.
 This towel's mine. (adjective)
 This is my towel. (pronoun)
- We use them as pronouns when it's clear what we're talking about.
 Which rocks? Those over there.
 (He doesn't repeat rocks because they've already been mentioned in the question.)
- This is only true if we're talking about things, not people.
 That man with the mask on. (NOT That with the mask on.)

 BUT we use this/these on their own when we introduce people:
 This is my wife, Polly. And these are my children, Mark and Anna.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in this, that, these or those.

- 1 What's in ... sandwich you're eating?
- 2 Look at ... people over there.
- 3 I can't use ... towel. It feels wet.
- 4 Ugh! I can't eat ... sandwiches. They've got sand in them.

Polly: That sandwich was nice. Are you sure you don't want one?

James: Quite sure, thanks.

Polly: This is the life! I know we're very busy these days but we should spend more time like this. Do you remember when we were students? In those days we spent a lot of time just doing

nothing.

James: What's that noise?

Polly: It's your mobile phone! James: Hello? Who's that?

Simon: This is Simon. Listen, this is important. You must come into the

office this afternoon. I've got a problem with this new

computer program.

James: Simon, that's your problem, not mine. This is my day off.

 We use this and these when we're talking about a present situation or something near in time.

This is the life. We're very busy these days.

We should spend more time like this.

You must come into the office this afternoon.

- We can also use *this* to refer to a subject we're going to talk about. Listen. This is important.
- We use *that* and *those* when we're talking about something further away in time. **That** sandwich was nice. (Past: She's finished eating it.)

Compare: *This* sandwich is nice. (Present: She's still eating it.)

In those days we spent a lot of time doing nothing. (Past)

Compare: We're very busy these days. (Present)

 We can also use that to refer back to a subject or an idea that's already been mentioned.

I've got a problem with this new computer program.

That's your problem, not mine.

• Note that when we speak on the telephone in British English we use this to introduce ourselves and that to ask who the caller is.

This is Simon. Who's that?

In American English this is used for both.

This is Simon. Who's this?

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in this, these, that or those.

- 1 A: Hello. Who's ...? B: ... is Simon. Is ... James?
- 2 Do you remember ... computer programs you bought last month?
- 3 Can you help me? I can't solve all ... problems on my own.
- 4 I can't help you now. I'm very busy ... week.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- ANSWERS TO 1 1 that 2 those 3 this 4 these
 - 2 1 that This that 2 those 3 these 4 this

Reflexive and emphatic pronouns: *myself*, *himself*, *themselves*, etc.

Mrs Betty Withers is 89 and lives alone. Last week she fell and hurt herself badly. But she doesn't want to go into an old people's home. 'I may be 89, but I can still look after myself. The man next door is only 80, but he can't even make a piece of toast without burning himself! I told him the other day: 'Reg Dwyer, you'll kill yourself one day if you aren't more careful.' Men aren't very good at looking after themselves, are they? Women are much better. We know how to look after ourselves, don't we?'

Step 1

The main use of reflexive pronouns

• We use a reflexive pronoun (*myself*, *himself*, etc.) when the subject and the object of the verb are the same person. The action is directed back to the person who does it.

subject	verb	object
She	hurt	herself.
(She and hers	elf are the sa	me person.)
You	'll kill	yourself.
(You and your	rself are the s	same person.)

• The reflexive pronouns are:

	Singular		Plural
I	myself	We	ourselves
You	yourself	You	yourselves
He	himself	They	themselves
She	herself		
It	itself		

Note that when there is more than one person, the ending of the reflexive pronoun changes from *-self* to *-selves*:

yourself = one person (singular)
yourselves = two or more people (plural)
I can still look after myself. (singular)
We know how to look after ourselves. (plural)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in reflexive pronouns.

- 1 Betty Withers thinks she can look after ...
- 2 She thinks the man next door might kill ... one day.
- 3 Most old people prefer to look after ...

'I wake up at about half past six every morning. I get up at seven. I wash and dress and then I make myself a good breakfast. I keep myself busy by doing the housework. Of course, by the evening, I feel tired and I go to bed early. I don't enjoy myself very often - I don't go out much. But I never feel sorry for myself. I never complain. I don't mind living by myself,' said Mrs Withers.

Mrs Withers' social worker blames himself for her accident. He's angry with himself because he didn't insist that she went into an old people's home. 'She's too old to be responsible for herself. I worry that one day she might kill herself if she has another accident.'

• A few verbs in English are often used with a reflexive pronoun. The most common are:

to amuse yourself to behave yourself to blame yourself to burn yourself to control yourself to cut yourself to dry yourself to enjoy yourself to help yourself to hurt yourself to kill yourself to look after yourself to make yourself something to keep yourself busy, warm, etc.

I make myself a good breakfast.

I keep myself busy by doing the housework.

I don't enjoy myself very often.

She might kill herself if she has another accident.

• Many verbs are reflexive in other languages, but not normally in English:

to change (clothes) to dress

to wake up to get up to go to bed

to shave to wash

to stand up to sit down to lie down

to feel (+ adjective) to relax to rest

to complain to concentrate to remember to worry

I wake up at half past six. (NOT I wake myself up)

I feel tired. (NOT I feel myself tired)

I never complain. (NOT I never complain myself)

I worry that she might kill herself. (NOT I worry myself)

• We sometimes use a reflexive pronoun after an adjective + preposition: to be angry with yourself to be ashamed of yourself to be pleased with yourself to be proud of yourself to be responsible for yourself to be sorry for yourself

I'm never sorry for myself.

The social worker's angry with himself.

• Note the expression *by myself* which means 'on my own' or 'alone'. *I don't mind living by myself*.

We can use it with all the reflexive pronouns: by herself, by themselves, etc.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in reflexive pronouns if necessary.

- 1 Mrs Withers gets ... up early.
- 2 She doesn't often enjoy ...
- 3 But people like her prefer to live by ...
- 4 The social worker blames ... for Mrs Withers' accident.

Step 3

Emphatic pronouns: myself, yourself, etc.

Mrs Withers doesn't want to go into an old people's home, and the social worker himself admits that she's very independent. 'Why should I go into a home?' asked Mrs Withers. 'The doctor himself said I was still very healthy. I can do most of my housework myself. And look at this cake I've made. Could that social worker make a cake like this himself?'

• We often use these pronouns as emphatic pronouns to emphasise that someone does something without help. We put the pronoun at the end of the sentence.

I can do my housework myself. (= No one helps me.)

Could that social worker make a cake like this himself? (= without help)

• We sometimes use the emphatic pronoun to emphasise a noun or pronoun. We put it immediately after the noun or pronoun.

The doctor **himself** said that I was still very healthy. (She's emphasising that it was the doctor who said this.)

• When we speak, we stress the final syllable (-self or -selves).

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Add emphatic pronouns.

- 1 Mrs Withers can't do all her housework.
- 2 Mrs Withers admits that she finds some things difficult.

Step 4

Ourselves, yourselves, themselves or each other?

Mrs Withers continued: 'The old people in the village are very independent. They prefer to look after themselves. But they look after each other too. In fact, we often do things for each other. I cook hot meals for Reg Dwyer next door and he does the shopping for me. We all help one another when it's necessary.'

- Compare these two sentences. They don't mean the same.
 - A The old people in the village look after **themselves**.

B They look after **each other** too.

A means that they do things independently, on their own.

 $\ensuremath{\mathtt{B}}$ means that one old person helps another old person. It's a two-way action involving different people.

• We can say *each other* or *one another*. (But *one another* usually means we are talking about more than two people. It is also more formal.)

We all help each other. = We all help one another.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Rewrite these sentences using each other.

- 1 Reg helps me and I help him. We ...
- 2 He does things for me and I do things for him. We ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- ANSWERS TO 1 1 herself 2 himself 3 themselves
- CHECK QUESTIONS 2 2 herself 3 themselves 4 himself
 - 1, 2, 3 AND 4 3 1 Mrs Withers can't do all her housework
- herself. 2 Mrs Withers herself admits...
- 4 1 We help each other. 2 We do things for each other

Someone, something, somewhere, anyone, anything, anywhere, etc.

Paul and Beth stopped at a small petrol station in Scotland. No-one came to serve them. They couldn't see anyone. 'Somebody must be here, because they've left the office door open. Perhaps there's someone in the office. Go and see, Beth. If you find anybody, tell them we want some petrol.' Beth knocked, but nobody answered. She went in, but she couldn't see anybody. 'Is anybody there?' No-one answered. Then she saw a notice. **If nobody's here, we're closed**, it said.

Step 1

Someone/somebody, anyone/anybody, no-one/nobody

- Someone/somebody both mean the same, as do anyone/anybody, no-one/nobody. They couldn't see anyone. = They couldn't see anybody.
- Someone, anyone, no-one are used with a verb in the singular.

 Perhaps there's someone in the office. If nobody's here, we're closed.

 BUT we use they, them, their when we refer to someone, etc.

 Somebody must be here, because they've left the door open.

Somebody must be here, because **they**'ve left the door open. If you find **anybody**, tell **them** we want some petrol.

• We usually use *someone* in affirmative sentences and *anyone* in questions and negative sentences.

Somebody must be here. **Is anybody** there? She **couldn't** see **anybody**.

BUT we can use *anyone* in affirmative sentences. It means 'it doesn't matter who'.

If you **find anybody**, tell them we want some petrol.

• *No-one* is used with a verb in the affirmative. *No-one came* to serve them.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in someone (-body), anyone (-body), no-one (-body).

- 1 Was there ... at the petrol station? 2 ... had left the office door open.
- 3 Beth didn't find ... in the office. 4 When she called, ... answered.

Step 2

Something, anything, nothing

At lunchtime, Paul and Beth stopped at a café. Paul wasn't hungry. 'Paul, are you going to eat anything?'

'No, there's nothing I like on the menu. I won't have anything.'

'But you must eat something. You've eaten nothing all day.'

'Oh, all right. I'll have something like a sandwich. What about you? Are you going to have something hot?'

'Yes, I'm starving. I could eat anything!'

- *Something, anything, nothing* follow the same rules as *someone, anyone, no-one.* (See Step 1.)
- Note that we can use *anything* in affirmative sentences, where it means 'it doesn't matter what'. *I could eat anything!*
- Note that *something* (like *someone* and *somewhere*) can also be used in polite questions, offers or suggestions.

Are you going to have **something** hot?

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in something, anything or nothing.

- 1 Paul doesn't want ... 2 Is there ... he likes on the menu?
- 3 He's eaten ... all day. 4 He wants ... light.

Step 3

Somewhere, anywhere, nowhere

The next morning Paul and Beth were deciding what to do.

'Where shall we go this morning?'

'I don't mind. We can go anywhere you like.'

'Shall we go somewhere by the sea?'

'OK. Where's the map? Have you seen it anywhere?'

'It must be somewhere in our room.'

'No, it isn't there. And it's nowhere in the car. I can't find it anywhere.'

- Somewhere also follows the same rules as someone, anyone, no-one. (See Step 1.)
- Note that *somewhere* (NOT anywhere) is used in suggestions. (See Step 2.) Shall we go **somewhere** by the sea?
- Anywhere can be used in affirmative sentences. It means 'it doesn't matter where'. We can go anywhere you like.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in somewhere, anywhere or nowhere.

- 1 Beth wants to go ... by the sea.
- 2 Paul hasn't seen the map ... 3 It's ... in their room.

Step 4

Something, etc. + infinitive or adjective

Paul and Beth are in Inverness, They're looking at the tourists' guide. 'Nothing to do today? You want somewhere nice to go? Somewhere different? Come to Inverness. There's nowhere more beautiful in Scotland. There's something interesting for all the family. Buy something special at the Castle Souvenir Shop. Have something to eat at Craigie's 5-star restaurant. You won't find anything better in Scotland! And you might meet somebody famous! If you need more information, you'll find someone to help you at the Tourist Office.'

After someone, something, somewhere, etc. we often use:

- an infinitive. Nothing to do? You'll always find someone to help you.
- an adjective or an adjective + an infinitive.

 Somewhere different? something interesting somewhere nice to go

CK QUESTIONS 4

Paul and Beth didn't enjoy Inverness. Put in anything, anybody or nobody.

- 1 They didn't meet ... famous at Craigie's.
- 2 They couldn't buy ... special at the Castle. It was closed.
- 3 And there was ... to help them at the Tourist Office.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 anyone (-body) 2 someone (-body) 3 anyone (-body) 4 no-one (-body)
- 1, 2, 3 AND 4 2 1 anything 2 anything 3 nothing 4 something
- 3 1 somewhere 2 anywhere 3 nowhere
- 4 1 anyone (-body) 2 anything 3 no-one (-body)

Possessive forms: The man's children, the door of the room, a friend of mine

The multi-millionaire, Mr Barney Varley, is dead. A maid found Mr Varley's body at his luxury flat in London. The dog's lead was tied round Mr Varley's hands, but the dog had disappeared. The millionaire's children, Anna and Seth, weren't with him. Anna and Seth's mother, Mrs Fay Varley, is in hospital suffering from shock. The children's grandmother, Mrs Ena Varley, is now looking after them. The police are refusing to answer reporters' questions.

Step 1

Main uses of the apostrophe: 's and s'

- We use 's to show that something belongs to someone, or that something is associated with someone. We use it with singular nouns (people and animals). *Mr Varley's* body *the dog's* lead
- With plural nouns, we add an apostrophe after the final *s*. *The police are refusing to answer reporters' questions.*
- With plural nouns without a final *s* (*men*, *women*, etc.) we use 's. the **children's** grandmother
- With two or more names, we put 's after the last name.
 Anna and Seth's mother
- 's is pronounced /s/ after c, f, k, p, ph, t, th: Seth's /seθs/, /z/ after all other consonants: The dog's /dogz/ lead, /iz/ after ch, s, sh: The boss's / ¹bosiz/ daughter.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer the questions.

- 1 What was found round Mr Varley's hands?
- 2 Who is Mrs Fay Varley? She's ... wife.
- 3 Who is Mrs Ena Varley? She's ... grandmother.

Step 2

Other uses of 's or s'

Today's newspapers all report Mr Varley's death. He was the chairman of Britain's biggest company and one of the country's richest men. The company's employees were shocked by his death. He had just returned from three weeks' holiday in Greece. The night before his death he stayed at his brother's in north London. It seems he went to the chemist's to buy some aspirin. He didn't have his own car; he was driving his wife's.

We can use the 's or s' form:

- on its own, when it isn't necessary to repeat a noun. He didn't have his own car; he was driving his wife's.
- on its own, when we talk about someone's home or a shop. *He stayed at his brother's*. (= at his brother's house or flat) *He went to the chemist's*. (= the chemist's shop)

• with organisations or groups of people (company, government, etc.). *The company's employees were shocked*.

Here, we can also use the noun + of + noun construction.

The employees of the company were shocked. (See Step 3.)

with places/countries.
 the country's richest men. Britain's biggest company

• with expressions of time (today, Monday, a month, etc.). today's newspapers three weeks' holiday in Greece

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer the questions.

- 1 What's special about Mr Varley's company?
- 2 Who was shocked by his death?
- 3 Did Mr Varley stay at his own flat the night before his death? No, he stayed ...
- 4 Whose car was Mr Varley driving?
- 5 Why had he been to Greece? For ...

Step 3

When we use noun + of + noun or noun + noun

Mr Varley's body was found in the kitchen of his London flat. The kitchen window was open. There was a glove on the table. The maid described to reporters the horror of the scene. The car keys and one of Mr Varley's three cars were missing. The maid is the wife of the man who looks after Mr Varley's cars. She hasn't seen her husband for two days.

• When we talk about things, rather than people or animals, we usually use noun + of + noun rather than 's/s' to say that something belongs to something, or that something is associated with something.

the kitchen of his flat. (NOT his flat's kitchen) the horror of the scene. (NOT the scene's horror)

• We can often simplify noun + of + noun and use just noun + noun. the car keys (You can also say: 'the keys of the car') the kitchen window (NOT the window of the kitchen)

Sometimes both constructions are possible (see *car keys* above), but not always. There's no clear rule that tells you when you can or can't use the noun + noun construction. If necessary, use a good dictionary.

• When the noun is accompanied by a descriptive phrase or clause, we must use *of* (and not 's).

She's the wife of the man who looks after Mr Varley's cars.

We can't say 'She's the man's wife who looks after Mr Varley's cars' because it isn't clear who looks after the cars.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences.

- 1 The police want to find (owner/glove).
- 2 They want to find (husband/the maid who works for Mr Varley).
- 3 They also want to find (keys/car).

Ralph Digby knew Mr Varley well. 'Barney Varley was a friend of mine. We played tennis together. I've still got a tennis racket of his. He lent it to me the last time we played. My son, Alex, is a friend of his daughter's.'

• *A friend*, etc. *of* can be followed by a possessive pronoun *mine*, *yours*, *hers*, etc. (see Unit 68) or by 's.

a tennis racket of his a friend of mine

a friend of his daughter's

We use *a friend*, etc. + *of* when we want to describe something by saying who it belongs to, or someone by saying who they're associated with.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Answer the questions.

- 1 Did Ralph Digby know Barney Varley well? Yes, he was ...
- 2 Does his son Alex know Mr Varley's daughter well? Yes, he's ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 A dog's lead. 2 Barney Varley's wife 3 the children's grandmother or Anna and Seth's grandmother
- 2 1 It's Britain's biggest. 2 The company's employees. OR The employees of the company. 3 No, he stayed at his brother's.
 - 4 His wife's. 5 For three weeks' holiday.
- 3 1 The police want to find the owner of the glove. 2 They want to find the husband of the maid who works for Mr Varley. 3 They also want to find the car keys.
- 4 1 Yes, he was a friend of his. 2 Yes, he's a friend of hers.

Possessive adjectives and pronouns: my, mine, etc. My own Whose?

Helen has just got married. All her family have come to the wedding. At the party afterwards she's telling a friend who the different people are.

'That old lady's my grandmother. She's 91, but she's very independent. She still lives on her own. The girl by the window is Maggy. She's got her own computer company. And that's her brother, Jack. They're my cousins. The man standing next to them is their father.'

'So, he's your uncle.'

'Yes.'

'How old are your cousins?'

'Jack's 17, and Maggy's 25.'

'What about the couple by the door?'

'They're our neighbours. They're quite rich. They've got their own swimming pool.'

'Is that their dog?'

'Yes. Have you seen its legs? It's only got three!'

Step 1

Possessive adjectives: my, your, etc.

my I like **my** brother. You vour Do you like your uncle? He his Does he like his sisters? She her She doesn't like **her** father. It its The dog likes its food. We We like our neighbours. You your Do you both like your parents? They their They like their grandmother.

• Possessive adjectives are always followed by a noun, either singular or plural. The form of the possessive adjective is the same before a singular or plural noun.

my grandmother my cousins

my grandmother my cousins your uncle your cousins

- We use possessive adjectives to make it clear that one person or thing belongs to another, or is associated with another.
- We use the possessive adjective *its* when the possessor is an animal or a thing. Don't confuse it with it's (= it is OR it has).

Have you seen its legs? It's (= it has) only got three!

 $\bullet~$ We use a possessive adjective + own when we say that something belongs completely to someone.

She's got **her own** computer company. They've got **their own** swimming pool.

• Note the expressions on my own, on his own, on their own, etc. She still lives on her own. (= She lives alone.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Look at the text above and complete the sentences using the correct possessive adjective. Use own where necessary.

- 1 Jack: 'Maggy's ... sister.' 2 Helen: 'Jack and Maggy are ... cousins.'
- 3 'Is Helen ... granddaughter?' Grandmother: 'Yes, she is.'
- 4 'What a strange dog! What's ... name?' '... name's Tripod.'
- 5 Maggy's got ... computer company. 6 She doesn't live with anyone. She lives ...

It's late. One of the guests at the wedding wants to leave, but he can't move his car because another car is in the way. He's talking to another man.

'Whose car is this? Is it yours?'

'No, it isn't mine. Mine's a Ford.'

'What about Daniel? Is it his?'

'No, it isn't his. His is a Volkswagen.'

'What about the neighbours? Is it theirs?'

'No, they haven't brought theirs.'

'I'll ask Janet. Perhaps it's hers.'

'No, it isn't hers. She hasn't got a car.'

'Ah, here are Jack and Maggy. I'll ask them. Hi, you two! Do you know whose car this is? Is it yours?'

'No, it isn't ours. I don't know whose it is.'

I **mine** This car belongs to me. It's **mine**.

You **yours** Does this car belong to you? Is it **yours**?

He **his** This car belongs to him. It's **his**.

She **hers** This car doesn't belong to her. It isn't **hers**.

It (no possessive pronoun)

We ours This car belongs to us. It's ours.

You **yours** Does this car belong to you two? Is it **yours**?

They theirs This car belongs to them. It's theirs.

• We use possessive pronouns on their own without a noun. We use them when it isn't necessary to repeat a noun (singular or plural).

Whose car is this? Is it yours?

(The speaker doesn't need to say 'Is it your car?' His first question has already made it clear that he's talking about a car.)

Note: There isn't a possessive pronoun for *it*.

• We use the question word *Whose* to ask who something belongs to. There are two ways to ask the same question.

Whose car is this? (= Who does this car belong to?)

Whose is this car? (= Who does this car belong to?)

We use Whose without a noun when we don't need to repeat the noun.

Whose is this?

(When the speaker asks this question, it's clear he's pointing at the car.)

Note how we say that we don't know who something belongs to:

I don't know whose it is.

OR plural: I don't know whose they are.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer the questions, using a possessive pronoun.

- 1 Does the car belong to the other man? No, it isn't ...
- 2 Does the car belong to Janet? No, it isn't ...
- 3 Does the car belong to the neighbours? No, ...
- 4 'Who does this car belong to?' Ask this question in another way.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 my 2 my 3 your 4 its 1ts 5 her own 6 on her own
- 2 1 No, it isn't his. 2 No, it isn't hers. 3 No, it isn't theirs. 4 Whose car is this? OR Whose is this car?

Sophie's buying clothes. She's talking to a shop assistant.

'I'm looking for a T-shirt with long sleeves. Have you got one?'

'What colour do you want?'

'Have you got a blue one?'

'I don't think so. ... I've got a green one.'

'No, I really wanted a blue one.'

Step 1

One = a/an + noun

We use one when we don't want to repeat a singular noun. We already know what
the noun is.

Have you got one?

(Sophie doesn't need to repeat 'a T-shirt with long sleeves'.)

• When we add an adjective, we use a/an + adjective + one. Have you got a blue one?

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Replace a word in each of these sentences with one.

1 Sophie wants a T-shirt, but they haven't got a T-shirt she likes.

2 There's a green T-shirt, but Sophie wants a blue T-shirt.

Step 2

The one/the ones Which one(s), etc.

'How much are these jeans?'

'Which ones do you mean? The blue ones?'

'No, these black ones.'

'Ah, those are £39.99.'

'And how much is that red skirt?'

'Which one? Do you mean the one with pockets?'

'Yes.'

'Er, that one's £45.99. The green one without pockets is £39.00.'

• When we compare or select things and don't want to repeat the noun, we use *one/ones* with *the*, *this*, *that*, *which*.

Do you mean **the one** with pockets?

(The shop assistant doesn't need to repeat 'the red skirt'.)

Which ones do you mean?

(She doesn't need to repeat 'jeans'.)

• Note that we don't usually use *ones* after the plural forms *these* and *those*. We say *these* rather than *these ones*.

But if *these* and *those* are followed by an adjective we use *ones*.

Ah, those are \$39.99. These black ones.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite these sentences so that the noun is not repeated. Use *one* or *ones* where necessary.

- 1 Sophie wants some jeans; she likes the black jeans.
- 2 She prefers the red skirt to the green skirt.
- 3 Those jeans are \$50.00, but these jeans are a lot cheaper.

Step 3

When you can't use one/ones

Sophie doesn't earn much money, and she spends the money she earns on clothes.

It's Saturday morning. She's going shopping in town. It's raining. She can't find her umbrella.

'Mum! I can't find my umbrella. I can see yours, but I can't find mine.' 'OK. You can take mine.'

Sophie wants some new shoes, so she's come into town to buy some. She wants some red ones. She's seen a few that she likes, but there aren't any in her size. The trouble is, she's got quite big feet.

• We never use *one* to replace an uncountable noun (like *money, music, water*, etc.).

Sophie doesn't earn much money, and she spends **the money** she earns on clothes. (NOT She spends the one she earns on clothes.)

• We don't use *one/ones* after the possessive adjectives *my, your*, etc. Instead, we use a possessive pronoun, *mine, yours*, etc. without *one/ones*.

I can see **yours**, but I can't find **mine**.

(NOT I can see your one, but I can't find my one.)

• We don't use *one/ones* after 'number' words like *some*, *any*, *a few*, *many*, *a lot*, *three*, *fifteen*, etc.

She's come into town to buy some. (NOT some ones)

She's seen a few that she likes. (NOT a few ones)

There aren't any in her size. (NOT any ones)

But if there's an adjective after these words, we must use *one/ones*.

She's looking for some red ones. (NOT some red)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite these sentences so that the noun is not repeated.

- 1 Sophie can see her mother's umbrella, but she can't find her umbrella.
- 2 Sophie wants to buy some shoes, but she can't find any shoes in her size.
- 3 She doesn't really need any more shoes, but she's going to buy some shoes.
- 4 She doesn't want black shoes; she's looking for some red shoes.
- 5 Most girls don't have big feet, but her feet are big.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 but they haven't got one she likes. 2 but Sophie wants a blue one.
- 2 1 she likes the black ones. 2 to the green one. 3 but these are a lot cheaper.
- 3 1 but she can't find hers. 2 but she can't find any in her size. 3 but she's going to buy some. 4 she's looking for some red ones. 5 but hers are big.

The use and position of adjectives

Martin Paxman is rich. He had rich parents who left him a fortune when they died. He lives in a big house in the town of Modbury. But that isn't his only home. He also owns a farm in a neighbouring village. Nowadays the rich sometimes feel embarrassed when they see the homeless on the streets and when they read about the unemployed in the newspapers.

But Martin isn't ashamed. His life is good. He rarely gets ill. He's never alone. He just thinks he's been lucky and he's glad to be alive.

Step 1

Adjectives used before a noun or not Adjectives as nouns

• Adjectives are used to describe things or people. They're the same before singular and plural nouns. Most adjectives can be used after a verb and before a noun.

Martin Paxman is rich. (used after the verb *be*) *He had rich parents*. (used before a noun - *parents*)

• The following adjectives aren't normally used before a noun: afraid, alive, alone, apart, ashamed, asleep, awake, aware, glad, ill, pleased, ready, sure, unable, upset, well.

Martin isn't **ashamed**. (You can't say 'an ashamed person') He rarely gets **ill**. (You can't say 'an ill person')

Some adjectives aren't normally used alone after a verb. The most common are:
 eventual, existing, countless, indoor, main, maximum, neighbouring, occasional,
 only, outdoor, principal.
 It isn't his only home. (You can't say 'The home is only')

It isn't his **only home**. (You can't say 'The home is only') a **neighbouring village**. (NOT The village is neighbouring)

• Sometimes when we talk about a group of people in general, we can use *the* + adjective as a noun. *The* + adjective is followed by a plural verb.

The rich sometimes feel embarrassed. (= rich people) when they see the homeless (= homeless people) when they read about the unemployed. (= unemployed people)

Some common examples of adjectives used as nouns are: the blind, the dead, the deaf, the disabled, the elderly, the English, the Spanish, etc., the handicapped, the homeless, the injured, the old, the poor, the underprivileged, the unemployed, the young.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences, using each of these adjectives once: alone, lonely, glad, happy.

- 1 Martin's got lots of friends. He certainly isn't a ... person.
- 2 He's always ... when his friends come to see him.
- 3 He really enjoys life. He's a very ... man.
- 4 Martin isn't ... in the house tonight. Jessica's with him.

Martin's 25 years old. He's a pleasant young man. He's honest and generous. His girlfriend Jessica is a beautiful slim dark-haired American girl who likes wearing long black silk dresses and expensive silver jewellery. She's lively, warm and intelligent.

Last week Martin bought himself a big new wooden bed. It's 2.5 m long and 3 m wide. The mattress is 75 cm thick. He also bought a red and gold duvet cover to go on the bed. He wanted a long bed because he's nearly 2 m tall. But now he doesn't know where he'll be sleeping in a few weeks' time. This morning he had some sudden worrying news. The bank where he keeps all his money is having serious financial problems and is closing down!

 When we use more than one adjective, we put the adjective that gives our opinion before the adjective that gives factual information.

He's a pleasant young man. (NOT a young pleasant man) Martin's pleasant = an opinion. Martin's young = a fact.

Adjectives usually go in a particular order:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
(opinion)	(size)	(shape)	(age)	(colour)	(origin)	(materia	
a	big		new			wooden	bed
a beautiful		slim		dark-haired	American		girl
	long			black		silk	dresses
serious	3					financia	l problems

• Two adjectives together are often joined by and: when there are two colour adjectives.

He also bought a **red and gold** duvet cover to go on the bed. when there are two adjectives alone after a link verb.

He's always pleasant and generous.

 When there are three adjectives alone after a link verb, we usually put a comma after the first, and and between the last two.

She's lively, warm and intelligent.

 When we give measurements, we put the adjectives deep, high, long, old, tall, thick, wide after measurement nouns.

Martin's 25 years old. He's nearly 2 m tall.

The bed's 2.5 m long and 3 m wide.

The mattress is 75 cm thick.

Note: We don't say 'I'm 65 kilos heavy.' We say 'I'm 65 kilos in weight.'

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put the adjectives in the best order. Add and where necessary.

- 1 That (tall/young/nice) man is Martin Paxman.
- 2 He's got a (blue/grey) Mercedes.
- 3 His girlfriend's got (round/big/brown) eyes.
- 4 She's about (tall/1m 60).

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 lonely 2 glad or happy 3 happy 4 alone
- 2 1 That nice tall young man 2 a blue and grey Mercedes 3 big round brown eyes 4 She's about 1m 60 tall.

Comparatives and superlatives (1)

Here are the results of a survey of the differences between men and women in Britain.

- Women are cleaner than men. 60% of women, but only 42% of men, have a bath or a shower every day. The cleanest women (7%) have a bath or a shower twice a day!
- Men are faster drivers than women. On motorways they're faster by 17 k.p.h., in town by 11 k.p.h.
- On average, adult men are taller than women (by 5 cm), because they usually have longer legs. The tallest man in the world was Robert Wadlow. He was 2m 72! The tallest woman (Zeng Jinlian) was 2m 48!
- A man's brain is bigger than a woman's, but Neanderthal man's brain was bigger than modern man's.

Step 1

Uses of the comparative and superlative

We often compare people and things; we say how they are similar or different.

• If there are two things or people or two groups of things or people, we use the comparative.

A man's brain is **bigger** than a woman's. Women are **cleaner** than men.

- If there are three or more people or things, we often use the superlative. *The tallest man in the world was Robert Wadlow.*
- We generally use *the* with the superlative. Sometimes *the* isn't used in informal speech. But we must use *the* if the superlative begins the sentence.

Women who have a bath twice a day are (the) cleanest.

The cleanest women have a bath twice a day.

• The comparative is often followed by than. A man's brain is bigger than a woman's. Women are cleaner than men.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences with a comparative or a superlative.

- 1 What's the difference between men and women drivers? Men are (fast)
- 2 Young men between 17 and 20 are ... drivers. (fast).
- 3 Modern man's brain is ... than Neanderthal man's. (small)

Step 2 | Comparative and superlative forms: short adjectives

We form the comparative by adding -er to the adjective, and the superlative by adding -est.

	Comparative	Superlative
clean	cleaner	(the) cleanest
fast	faster	(the) fastest
tall	taller	(the) tallest
long	longer	(the) longest

Note the spelling changes in adjectives like these. (See also Step 3.)

STATE CITATION OF THE	adjectives mile tires
bigger	(the) biggest
fatter	(the) fattest
larg er	(the) largest
dr ier	(the) driest
	bi gg er fa tt er larg er

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Write the missing forms.

1 old the oldest ... 2 ... cleaner 3 wet 4 ... nicer

Step 3

Adjectives with two syllables

- Men have dirtier hair than women. On average, women wash their hair twice a week, men only once.
- Women are more honest than men. 46% of men say they often do the cooking. 32% of women agree.
- Married men are healthier than unmarried men. The healthiest people are unmarried women!
- Women are more afraid of spiders than men: 69% of women, 16% of men. Women between 20 and 40 are the most afraid.
- We usually form the comparative and superlative of adjectives with two syllables ending in -y, -le, -er, -ow like this:

(the) dirtiest dirty dirtier simple (the) simplest simpler clever cleverer (the) cleverest (the) narrowest narrow narrower

 We form the comparative and superlative of other two-syllable adjectives with more and (the) most.

more honest (the) most honest honest afraid more afraid (the) most afraid

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Write the missing forms.

healthier the healthiest 1 ... 2 easy more careful ... 4 modern ...

Long adjectives

- Men are more interested in sport than women. 30% of men talk about it often, but only 5% of women.
- Woman are more romantic than men. 62% of women keep old love letters, and only 22% of men.
- Women are more religious than men. 8% go to church regularly, and 6% of men. Women over 65 are the most religious.
- Men are more untidy than women. Only 18% of men hang up their clothes at night, compared to 37% of women. Boys between ten and eighteen are the most untidy.
- We usually form the comparative and superlative of long adjectives (with three syllables or more) with more and (the) most.

interested

more interested

(the) most interested

romantic religious

more romantic more religious

(the) most romantic (the) most religious

• With adjectives that have a negative form beginning with un- (e.g. tidy - untidy), we can form the comparative and superlative using either -er/-est or more/(the) most.

untidy unhappy unhealthy

untidier/more untidy unhappier/more unhappy unhealthier/more unhealthy (the) untidiest/most untidy

(the) unhappiest/most unhappy (the) unhealthiest/most unhealthy

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Write the missing forms.

- 1 intelligent
- 2 ... more dangerous
- ... the most interesting

Step 5

Irregular comparatives and superlatives

- 52% of men pass the driving test first time, but only 39% of women. But does this mean they're better drivers than women? In fact the best drivers (and the safest drivers) are women between 30 and 40. The worst drivers are young men between 18 and 25, because they're the most dangerous.
- A few adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

good better

(the) best

bad worse (the) worst

older/elder old

(the) oldest/(the) eldest farther/further (the) farthest/(the) furthest

We use elder, the eldest only when we talk about members of a family, in phrases

my elder brother my eldest sister

We don't use elder + than. We can't say: 'He's elder than his brother.'

• Farther and further refer to distance. Further can also mean 'additional'. Liverpool's 10 miles away. Manchester's farther/further. Have you got any further questions?

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Complete the answers using better, worse, the best, the worst.

- 1 Are men better drivers than women? No, they're ...
- 2 Are men between 18 and 25 the best drivers? No, they're ...
- 3 Are women between 30 and 40 the worst drivers? No, they're ...
- 4 Do men think they're worse drivers than women. No, they think they're ...

Step 6

The comparison of adverbs

- In general women drive better and more carefully than men. They have 25% fewer accidents. They drive most carefully when they have children in the car.
- Women get up earlier than men and go to bed later. (Six minutes earlier in the morning and ten minutes later at night.)
- Women work harder than men in the home. Women aged between 45 and 60 work the hardest. (They spend 2. 25 hours a day on housework.)
- We form the comparative and superlative of most adverbs with *more* and *most*. carefully more carefully (the) most carefully

 They drive **most carefully** when they have children in the car.
- There are some irregular adverbs: well/better/(the) best badly/worse/(the) worst far/farther (further)/the farthest (the furthest) Women drive better than men.
- We form the comparative and superlative of the irregular adverbs fast, soon, hard, high, near, long, late, early with -er and -est.

 Women get up earlier than men.

 Women work harder than men in the home.

CHECK QUESTIONS 6

Complete the sentences, using a comparative or a superlative.

- 1 Do women really drive ... than men? (well)
- 2 Who gets up ... in your family? (early)
- 3 Women drivers wait ... than men at traffic lights. (patient)
- 4 In general men sleep ... than women. (long)

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1. 2, 3, 4, 5 AND 6

- 1 1 faster 2 the fastest 3 smaller
- 2 1 older 2 clean the cleanest 3 wetter the wettest 4 nice the nicest
- 3 1 healthy 2 easier the easiest 3 careful the most careful 4 more modern the most modern
- 4 1 more intelligent the most intelligent 2 dangerous the most dangerous 3 interesting more interesting
- 5 1 worse 2 the worst 3 the best 4 better
- 6 1 better 2 (the) earliest 3 more patiently 4 longer

Comparatives and superlatives (2)

You can now go from England to France by plane, by train through the Channel Tunnel ('Le Shuttle'), by ferry, or by hovercraft. The plane is four times as quick as the train, but a train ticket doesn't cost as much as a plane ticket. And nowadays going by train is just as comfortable as going by plane. The hovercraft is twice as fast as the ferry, but it isn't as fast as 'Le Shuttle'. The ferry costs about the same as the hovercraft, but the hovercraft doesn't have the same facilities as the ferry.

Step 1

As ... as .../not as ... as ... + the same as ...

- We use *as* ... *as* ... to say that two things are the same or similar. *Just* adds emphasis. *Going by train is just as comfortable as going by plane.*
- We use not as ... as ... to say that two things are different.
 A train ticket doesn't cost as much as a plane ticket.
 (= A plane ticket costs more than a train ticket.)
 The hovercraft isn't as fast as 'Le Shuttle'.
 (= 'Le Shuttle' is faster than the hovercraft.)
- We can use *twice*, *three times*, etc. to show the difference more precisely. *The hovercraft is twice as fast as the ferry*.
- We use the same/not the same as ... to say two things are or are not the same.
 The ferry costs about the same as the hovercraft.
 The hovercraft doesn't have the same facilities as the ferry.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Make complete sentences.

- 1 The hovercraft/nearly as fast/'Le Shuttle'
- 2 A train ticket/cost as much/a plane ticket
- 3 Travelling by ferry/not the same/travelling by hovercraft

Step 2

'Double' comparatives: bigger and bigger

Every year more and more people travel from England to the continent. The cross-channel ferries are getting bigger and bigger. And they're becoming more and more luxurious.

If something is increasing, we can use a comparative + and + a comparative.
 More and more people travel from England.
 The ferries are getting bigger and bigger.
 They're becoming more and more luxurious.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences with a 'double' comparative form.

- 1 Holidays on the continent are becoming ... (popular).
- 2 Nowadays ... English people travel abroad.
- 3 The English Channel is getting ... (busy).

The ferry companies are building bigger ferries – the bigger the better. They think that the more comfortable the ferries are, the happier their passengers will be. But passengers want cheaper tickets – the cheaper the better. With the arrival of 'Le Shuttle', there's more competition. The more competition there is, the more quickly prices will come down.

- Note this construction: *the* + a comparative + *the better*. *The bigger the better*. *The cheaper the better*.
- When we want to talk about a change in one thing causing a change in another, we use *the* + a comparative followed by *the* + a different comparative.

The more comfortable the ferries are, the happier their passengers will be. The more competition there is, the more quickly prices will come down.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

- Complete the sentences, using comparatives.
- 1 ... the ferries are, ... they are. (big/comfortable)
 2 ... they are, ... people will use them. (cheap/more)
- 3 Prices must come down soon.! (soon/good)

Step 4

More/(the) most, less/(the) least, etc.

- * What's the least expensive way to cross the Channel? By ferry. At the moment it's less expensive than 'Le Shuttle'.
- * Which crossing takes the most time? The ferry. Which crossing takes the least time? 'Le Shuttle'.
- * Ferries can carry the most trucks. They can carry more foot passengers than 'Le Shuttle'. 'Le Shuttle' takes less freight and fewer cars than the ferry. The hovercraft takes the fewest foot passengers.
- * Most business travellers go by plane, although it costs the most.

•	less/the least	+	adjective	
The ferry's	less		expensive	than the train.
the	least		expensive	way to cross the Char
•	more/the most	+	plural/unco	untable noun
They carry	more		foot passeng	ers.
Which takes	the most		time?	
•	less/the least	+	uncountable	e noun
It takes	less		freight	than the ferry.
Which takes	the least		time?	
•	fewer/the fewest	+	plural noun	
It takes	fewer		cars	than the ferry.
It takes	the formest		foot passend	ers

• Note that *most* isn't always a superlative. It can be used (without *the*) with the meaning *nearly all*. *Most* business travellers go by plane.

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

- Use a comparative or a superlative.
- 1 The ferry is ... expensive way to cross the Channel.
- 2 The hovercraft takes ... time than the ferry to cross the Channel.
- 3 The hovercraft carries ... passengers than the ferry.
- 4 The ferry carries ... freight and ... cars than 'Le Shuttle'.

Cross the Channel on a P&O ferry! Our new ferries are now far more luxurious. They're also a bit faster than they were. There's a lot more space for the children to play. And we offer you far more entertainment. There's a casino and a cinema on board. We're now much bigger and much better! And we're slightly cheaper too!

• We can use *slightly, a bit, a little, much, far, a lot* before a comparative to say how different things or people are.

And we're slightly cheaper too!

(Slightly, a bit, a little have approximately the same meaning.)

Our new ferries are now far more luxurious.

(Much, far, a lot have approximately the same meaning.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Add the word in brackets to the sentences.

1 P&O think their new ferries are more luxurious. (far)

2 Their ferries are bigger now. (a lot) 3 They say they're cheaper. (a little)

Step 6

The superlative + in or of or a relative clause

- *Travel by 'Le Shuttle' through the longest railway tunnel in Europe! The most exciting of all the channel crossings!
- *Travel with P&O the biggest ferry company in Britain!

*Sail on 'Stena Europe', the newest ferry in the Stena fleet!

- *You'll have the best holiday of your life when you cross the Channel with 'Sealink'! The most experienced of all the ferry companies.
- *The smoothest Channel crossing you'll ever have! Why not fly to France with British Airways? It'll be the best decision you've ever made.
- After superlatives we can use phrases with *in* or *of*. We use *in* with the names of places and with words like *class*, *school*, *team*, *family*, *fleet*, etc.

the longest railway tunnel in Europe the newest ferry in the Stena fleet the most exciting of all the Channel crossings

We can also use a relative clause.
 The smoothest crossing (that) you'll ever have.
 The best decision (that) you've ever made.

CHECK QUESTIONS 6

Complete the sentences.

- 1 Which is the longest railway tunnel ... the world?
- 2 Dover is the busiest ... all the channel ports.
- 3 Which is the biggest ferry company ... Europe?
- 4 If you fly to France, it'll be the smoothest Channel crossing that ...!

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 AND 6

- 1 1 The hovercraft is nearly as fast as "Le Shuttle". 2 A train ticket doesn't cost as much as a plane ticket. 3 Travelling by ferry isn't the same as travelling by hovercraft.
- 2 1 more and more popular 2 more and more 3 busier and busier
- 3 1 The bigger the more comfortable 2 The cheaper the more 3 The sooner the better!
- 4 1 the least 2 less 3 fewer 4 more more
- 5 1 far more luxurious 2 a lot bigger 3 a little cheaper
- 6 1 in 2 of 3 in 4 you'll ever have or you've ever had

Adjectives ending in -ed and -ing: interested/interesting

Two people are watching television.

'This programme's boring. Can we change channels?'

'No, it's interesting.'

'Well, I'm bored with it. I'm not interested in the destruction of the Brazilian rainforests. I mean, it isn't exactly fascinating, is it? I just find it depressing. Can't we watch something more exciting? There's a gameshow on ITV."

'I'm surprised at you! You only want to watch rubbish.'

'Why's that surprising? I'm tired when I get home.'

'You're so boring! Why don't you just go to bed?'

Step 1 | Use of adjectives ending in -ing

- We use these adjectives to describe what something, or someone, is like. This programme's **boring**. No, it's **interesting**. You're so boring! I just find it depressing.
- CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Choose the best word to complete these sentences: amusing, depressing, surprising.

- 1 Programmes about the destruction of the environment are often ...
- 2 It's ... how many programmes about the environment they have on TV.
- 3 The film was very We laughed a lot.

Step 2 | Use of adjectives ending in -ed

- We use these adjectives to describe how we feel. Well, I'm bored. I'm not interested. I'm surprised at you. I'm tired.
- The most common adjectives with -ed and -ing endings are: amazed/amazing amused/amusing annoyed/annoying astonished/astonishing bored/boring confused/confusing depressed/depressing disappointed/disappointing disgusted/disgusting embarrassed/embarrassing excited/exciting fascinated/fascinating frightened/frightening interested/interesting shocked/shocking surprised/surprising tired/tiring worried/worrying

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Choose the correct word.

- 1 I think game-shows are very ... (amused/amusing)
- 2 I'm that you like them. (surprised/surprising)
- 3 I think they're ... (bored/boring)

1 AND 2

- ANSWERS TO 1 1 depressing 2 surprising 3 amusing
- CHECK QUESTIONS 2 1 amusing 2 surprised 3 boring

Adverbs of manner and degree: slowly, very

Laura was Spanish. Matthew was English. He was extremely interested in cricket. She wasn't. She thought it was an absolutely stupid game. He asked her rather nervously if she'd like to go and see a match between England and Australia. She answered politely that she knew nothing about cricket. Matthew said that he could easily explain the rules to her. Unfortunately she couldn't think of another excuse, so she said ves, but she didn't say it terribly enthusiastically.

The next day, at the match, Matthew explained the rules to Laura very carefully. She listened patiently, but she didn't really understand a thing!

Step 1 Use of adverbs of manner, adverbs of degree, sentence adverbs

• We use an adverb of manner to describe how someone does something. The adverb modifies the verb. It tells us more about the verb. It answers the question How?

She answered **politely**. (How did she answer? Politely.) She listened **patiently**. (How did she listen? Patiently.)

 Remember, an adjective describes someone or something. It tells us more about a noun (a person, place or thing).

Laura was **polite**. (Polite tells us more about Laura.)

Note: After the verbs look, feel, sound, smell, taste we use an adjective, not an adverb. She sounds polite. (See Unit 33.)

• Adverbs of degree (extremely, very, etc.) can modify an adjective.

verb adverb adjective He was extremely interested. It was an absolutely stupid game. They can also modify another adverb. verb adverb adverb

He explained the rules carefully. very She didn't say it terribly enthusiastically.

• Sentence adverbs like unfortunately, fortunately, actually, clearly, perhaps modify a whole clause.

Unfortunately she couldn't think of another excuse.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

What are the adverbs here?

Laura wasn't really interested in cricket; she thought it was a silly game, but clearly Matthew wanted her to go, so she reluctantly said yes.

Step 2

Forms of the adverbs of manner

• To form an adverb of manner we normally add -ly to the adjective.

adjective adverb patient patiently polite politely

• But, note these spelling changes:

easy easily (y > i after a consonant.)

careful carefully (l > ll)terrible terribly (le > ly)

enthusiastic enthusiastically (ic > ically)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Form adverbs from these adjectives.

1 rude 2 noisy 3 horrible 4 automatic 5 quick

Step 3

Well, nearly, hard/hardly, late/lately

It was a good match. The ground was nearly full - there were hardly any empty seats. England hadn't been playing well lately, but they were playing very well today. Laura tried hard to concentrate, but she could hardly keep her eyes open and once or twice she nearly went to sleep. Then she had an idea. 'Matthew, can we go now? I'm not well. I've got a really bad headache. And I've just remembered that I've got an English lesson at 4.45 and I don't want to arrive late.'

- Note: Adjective: *good* > Adverb: *well* (NOT goodly). *It was a good match. England were playing very well.*
- We can also use *well* as an adjective meaning 'in good health'. *I'm not well.* (= *I'm ill.*)
- Note the meaning of *nearly*.
 The ground was *nearly* full. (= almost full)
 She *nearly* went to sleep.
 (= She didn't go to sleep, but she almost went to sleep.)
- Note the difference between the adverbs hard and hardly and late and lately. She tried hard to concentrate. (= She made a lot of effort.)
 She could hardly keep her eyes open.
 (= She could almost not keep her eyes open.)
 There were hardly any empty seats. (= There were almost no empty seats.)
 She didn't want to arrive late. (late = the opposite of early)
- They hadn't been playing well lately. (lately = recently)
 See also: high (= a long way above something) and highly (= very). The ball went high into the air.
 Cricket is a highly popular sport in Australia.

and: *free* (= without paying) and *freely* (= with no restrictions).

Some people got into the ground **free**.

You don't have to stay in your seat; you can move around **freely**.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Choose the correct word.

- 1 Matthew has been out with Laura several times (late/lately) ...
- 2 But he doesn't know her very (good/well) ...
- 3 He used to have a girlfriend called Anna, but he (hard/hardly) ... sees her now.
- 4 Matthew and Laura didn't arrive (late/lately) ... at the match.

Matthew didn't want to leave the match early. He wanted to watch it right to the end. Laura wanted to go straight home. He had to think fast - what was he going to do? He found some aspirin in his pocket. 'You don't need to go to your English lesson. You've been working too hard, that's why you've got a headache. Here, take some aspirin quick. We won't stay long, I promise. Just another two hours.'

• The words *early, fast, late, high, low, right, wrong, free, hard, long, straight* can be used as adjectives and adverbs.

Matthew didn't want to leave early. (adverb)

Laura wanted to catch an early train. (adjective)

He wanted to watch the match right to the end. (= exactly: adverb)

For him it wasn't the **right** time to leave. (= correct: adjective)

Laura wanted to go straight home. (= directly: adverb)

Laura had long, **straight** hair. (adjective)

Matthew had to think fast. (= quickly: adverb)

Cricket isn't a very fast game. (adjective)

You've been working too hard. (adverb)

Cricket's a hard game to understand. (adjective)

We won't stay long, I promise. (= for a long time: adverb)

For Laura it was a long day. (adjective)

• Note that in informal English we often use the adjective forms *cheap*, *quick*, *slow*, *loud* as adverbs:

Take some aspirin quick! (= quickly)

Don't talk so **loud**! I'm trying to watch the game. (= loudly)

Matthew got the tickets cheap. (= cheaply)

Go slow! (= slowly)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Choose the right word to complete the sentences. Use straight, long, early, hard.

- 1 Matthew thought ... for a moment.
- 2 Laura wanted to leave ...
- 3 She wanted to go ... back to her flat.
- 4 They'd stayed at the match too ...

Step 5

Position of adverbs of manner/degree, and sentence adverbs

Laura looked at Matthew angrily. He sadly realised that he had no choice. Clearly he had to leave the match early. She certainly wouldn't wait till the end. He got up slowly. He could hardly take his eyes off the game. At least England had played well. He picked up his jacket impatiently. He nearly changed his mind, but then he said sadly: 'Let's go. I'll probably come again tomorrow. Fortunately the match goes on for another four days!'

• Note that we can't put an adverb between a verb and its object. We can't say: He could take hardly his eyes off the game.

OR: He picked up **impatiently** his jacket.

• There are three normal positions for adverbs: front position (at the beginning of a clause).

Clearly he had to leave the match early.

mid-position (before the main verb, or between an auxiliary verb and the main

He **nearly** changed his mind. I'll **probably** come again tomorrow. end position (after the main verb, at the end of the clause).

Laura looked at him **angrily**. He picked up his jacket **impatiently**.

• Adverbs of manner normally go in mid-position or end position. He picked up his jacket impatiently. (end position)

OR He **impatiently** picked up his jacket. (mid-position)

BUT they go in end position when we want to emphasise the adverb.

Laura looked at him **angrily**. (We want to emphasise her anger.) He got up **slowly**. (We want to emphasise the way he got up.)

• Sentence adverbs like fortunately, unfortunately, clearly, actually, perhaps usually come in front position.

Fortunately the match goes on for another four days.

BUT the sentence adverbs *probably*, *certainly*, *definitely* don't come in front position. We usually put them in mid-position.

I'll **probably** come tomorrow.

- Note that in negative sentences with the contracted form -n't we put certainly, definitely, probably, simply before the auxiliary. She certainly wouldn't wait till the end.
- We put the adverbs of degree *nearly*, *almost*, *hardly* in mid-position. He could hardly take his eyes off the game.
- We put the adverbs well and badly in end position. At least England had played well. (NOT England had well played.)

Note: It is not always possible to give precise rules about the position of adverbs in the sentence. But if you follow the rules in this Step you will not be wrong.

CHECK QUESTIONS 5

Put in the adverbs.

- 1 Laura wasn't interested in cricket. (clearly)
- 2 Matthew had explained the rules to her. (patiently)
- 3 She didn't want to stay at the match. (definitely)
- 4 She'd fallen asleep once or twice. (nearly)

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

- 1 1 really 2 clearly 3 reluctantly
- 2 1 rudely 2 noisily 3 horribly 4 automatically 5 quickly
- 3 1 lately 2 well 3 hardly 4 late 4 1 hard 2 early 3 straight 4 long
- 5 1 Clearly Laura wasn't interested in cricket. OR Laura clearly wasn't interested 2 Matthew had patiently explained the rules to her. OR Matthew had explained the rules to her patiently. 3 She definitely didn't want to stay at the match.
 - 4 She'd nearly fallen asleep once or twice.

Adverbs of frequency, time and place: often, today, there

Some foreign visitors were asked: 'What do you like best about Britain?'

- The fact that people always say 'please'. They're very rarely rude.
- The old people. They're friendly and they often call you 'Love' or 'Dear'.
- The television. There's always something good to watch every evening.
- Carpets in pubs! In Greece you hardly ever find a carpet on the floor in a bar. But there are usually carpets in English pubs.
- British gardens! They're beautiful. Do we usually have gardens in the USA? Yes, we normally do. But we don't usually have so many flowers. I've never seen so many lovely flowers.
- The weather! Every summer in Turkey it's always hot and dry, and we don't normally have any rain. Here in Britain it's generally warm. Sometimes it rains, of course. And occasionally I miss the sun. But it doesn't rain every day, and British weather is always interesting!

Step 1

Adverbs of frequency: often, always, sometimes, etc.

 $\bullet\,$ We use adverbs of frequency when we say how often something happens. The most common are:

100% always

usually/normally/generally

often/frequently

sometimes/occasionally

rarely/seldom

hardly ever

0% never

more common.

People always say please. We don't normally have rain.

I've never seen so many lovely flowers.

Frequently = often. But often is more common.
 Seldom = rarely. But rarely is more common.
 Usually, normally, generally all mean the same, but usually is the most common.
 Occasionally and sometimes mean approximately the same, but sometimes is

Note: It is not always possible to give precise rules about the position of adverbs in the sentence. But if you follow the rules in Steps 2 and 3 you will not be wrong.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

- 1 How often do you find carpets in Greek bars?
- 2 How often do British people use the word 'please'?
- 3 How often can you find an interesting programme on British TV?

Step 2

Position of adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency normally come in mid-position.

They come before a main verb.

main verb adverb

'please'. say always People

you 'Love' or 'Dear'. call They often

They come between an auxiliary and the main verb.

main verb auxiliary + adverb

so many lovely flowers. never seen I've any rain.

normally have We don't

BUT adverbs of frequency come after the verb be.

adverb be

different. often Their answers were

something good to watch. always There's (is)

 In questions and in short answers, adverbs of frequency come just before the main verb.

main verb adverb

gardens in the States? usually have Do we

normally do. Yes, we

In questions with the verb to be these adverbs come after the verb be. But in short answers they come before.

adverb he

a carpet on the floor? usually Is there friendly? - They usually are. always Are old people

• We usually put the adverbs sometimes, occasionally, often, usually, generally, normally in mid-position.

It sometimes rains, of course. I occasionally miss the sun.

But we can put them in front or end position to emphasise them.

Sometimes it rains, of course. Occasionally I miss the sun.

Does it rain often? - It rains occasionally.

- Note that we don't usually put the adverbs always, never, rarely, seldom, hardly ever in front position. We can't say: 'Always people say 'please'.' (BUT we must put always and never before an imperative: 'Never forget to say 'please'!')
- Adverb phrases like every day, every year, every evening, etc. usually come in end position. But they can also come in front position if you want to emphasise them.

There's something good to watch on TV every evening.

Every evening there's something good to watch.

These phrases are never used in mid-position.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Which sentences are correct?

- 1 I've visited often Britain.
- 2 I don't usually come in the winter.
- 3 British gardens normally have lots of flowers in them.
- 4 It rains in Turkey hardly ever in the summer.

- The postal service is the best thing about Britain. If I post a letter today, it'll almost certainly arrive tomorrow. The letters I send very rarely arrive late.
- Clean air! Nowadays most English people have stopped smoking. Now you can go into restaurants and offices and breathe clean air.
- Car drivers usually stop at pedestrian crossings here. But it's different in France. There, drivers very rarely stop.
- Adverbs of time answer the question 'When?' The most common are: again, now, then, recently, once, nowadays, suddenly, immediately, finally, afterwards, today, tomorrow, yesterday, late, early.
- + adverb phrases like: *on Monday/last week/next summer*, etc. We usually put them in end position, at the end of a clause.

If I post a letter today, it'll almost certainly arrive tomorrow.

- Now, then, recently, once, nowadays, suddenly, finally, afterwards, tomorrow, yesterday and the adverb phrases above can also go in front position for emphasis. **Nowadays** most English people have stopped smoking.
- Adverbs of definite time like yesterday, tomorrow, last week, etc. don't go in midposition, but they can go in front position for emphasis.

I posted a letter yesterday. Yesterday I posted a letter. NOT I yesterday posted a letter. (mid-position)

• *Now, then, recently* and *once* can come in front, mid or end position. Now you can go into offices and breathe clean air. You can **now** go into offices and breathe clean air. You can go into offices and breathe clean air **now**.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3a

Which sentences are correct?

- 1 Nowadays very few English people smoke.
- 2 I went into a restaurant last week and no-one was smoking.
- 3 I posted yesterday a letter and it today arrived.
- Adverbs of place answer the question 'Where?'. They include words like here, there, nearby, opposite, upstairs, etc. and phrases like in Britain, at home, etc. These adverbs normally go in end position.

Car drivers usually stop at pedestrian crossings here. But it's different in France. But they can come in front position for emphasis:

There, drivers very rarely stop.

• Note that if there are several adverbs in a sentence, the normal word order is:

	degree	+	manner	+	place	+	time
It rained	very		heavily		in London		yesterday.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3b

Which sentences are correct?

- 1 I arrived in Britain yesterday.
- 2 I like Britain and I here come every year.
- 3 Next summer I'm coming here again.

ANSWERS TO	
CHECK QUESTIONS	
1, 2 AND 3	

1 1 Hardly ever OR Rarely/Seldom. 2 Frequently or Often. 3 Always

2 2,3

3a 1, 2

3b 1, 3

Adverbs of degree: quite, fairly, pretty, rather So, such

Now it's time for the weather forecast here on Radio 5. There'll be quite a big change in the weather today. Most of the country will be quite cold, with temperatures between 5° and 8°. Winds from the south east will be fairly strong. In the north it'll be a fairly wet day, and it's likely to rain quite heavily on the north west coast.

Step 1

Quite, pretty, fairly

• We use the words *quite*, *pretty* and *fairly* to change the strength of an adjective or an adverb.

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Hot} & 35^{\circ} \\ \text{Quite, pretty hot} & 28^{\circ} \\ \text{Fairly hot} & 25^{\circ} \end{array}$

It'll be **pretty cold**. (adverb + adjective)
It's likely to rain **quite heavily**. (adverb + adverb)

• *Pretty* usually means the same as *quite* but it's more informal. *Fairly* isn't as strong as *pretty* or *quite*.

• Note that if we stress the words *quite*, *pretty* and *fairly* and not the adjective which follows, we make the adjective less strong.

It'll be quite cold. (= 4° perhaps)

It'll be quite cold. (= not as cold as 4°, perhaps 8°)

• We often use quite before an adjective + noun.

quite+a/an+adjective+nounThere'll bequiteabigchange in the weather.It'll bequiteadryday.But with fairly and pretty the word order is different.

a/an + fairly/pretty + adjective + noun It'll be a fairly wet day.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in quite, fairly or pretty.

- 1 It'll be ... cold tomorrow, about 8°.
- 2 Thursday will be ... a fine day.
- 3 It'll also be a ... windy day.

Step 2

Other uses of quite

The weather in the south will be quite different. In the south it'll be quite a dry day, with quite a few sunny periods and only one or two showers. But it'll be pretty cold with temperatures never higher than 7°. Winter hasn't quite finished yet, I'm afraid, although I must say I quite enjoy cold, clear days like today.

 Quite can also mean 'completely' or 'absolutely' when we use it with some adjectives. The most common are: alone, amazing, brilliant, certain, different, dreadful, extraordinary, right, sure, terrible, true, unnecessary, useless, wrong.

The weather in the south will be quite different. (= **completely** different from the weather in the north)

 We can also use quite (but not pretty or fairly) with these verbs: agree, enjoy, finish, forget, like, understand.

Quite sometimes means 'a little/moderately'.

although I quite enjoy cold, clear days (= enjoy a little)

It can also mean 'absolutely/completely'.

The winter hasn't quite finished yet. (= hasn't completely finished)

 Note the expression quite a few which means 'quite a lot of'. with quite a few sunny periods

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete these sentences with quite, pretty or fairly.

- 1 The weather this winter has been ... extraordinary, hasn't it?
- 2 Yes, I ... agree. We've had ... a lot of sunshine.

Step 3 | Rather

Now the forecast for tomorrow. It'll be rather cold and wet, I'm afraid, in the north. But the weather will be rather better in the south. In fact, it'll be rather a warm day for the time of year, the kind of day I rather like, with temperatures reaching 14°.

- When we use rather, it usually gives the adjective a negative meaning. It's rather warm today. (= too warm, not pleasant) It's quite warm today. (= pleasantly warm)
- But we can also use rather when a positive adjective is surprising. It'll be **rather** a **warm** day for the time of year. (= This is surprising. It's not normally warm at this time of year.)
- We can use rather (NOT quite, fairly or pretty) before comparatives. The weather will be rather better in the south.
- Rather can come before or after a/an. It'll be **rather a** warm day for the time of year. OR It'll be a rather warm day for the time of year.
- Rather can also be used with certain verbs like enjoy, hope, like, think. It means 'moderately' or 'to some degree'. the kind of day I rather like

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Can you add 'rather' to these sentences?

- 1 The weather tomorrow will be ... good.
- 2 It ... rains in the north of England.
- 3 It's been ... a wet month.

And finally the forecast for Friday. It won't be such a cold day in the north, and it won't be so wet. People up there will be glad to hear this because they've had such bad weather and such low temperatures recently. In fact on the north west coast they've had such a lot of rain that many houses have been flooded. It's rained for so long in Barrow that some old people haven't left their homes for days. But the rain hasn't been such a problem in other parts of the region.

• We use *such* before a noun (countable or uncountable) or an adjective + noun. *Such* emphasises the noun or the adjective + noun that follows. Note the word order:

0.200	such	+	a/an	+	adjective	+	noun
It hasn't been	such		a				problem.
It won't be	such		a		cold		day.
	such				low		temperatures
They've had	such				bad		weather.

- We can use *such* before *a lot of* (but NOT before *much* and *many*). *They've had* **such** *a* **lot** *of rain*.
- We use so before an adjective without a noun, or before an adverb.
 It won't be so wet. (adjective)
 It's rained for so long. (adverb)
- We can use so and such + a that clause when we talk about a result.
 It's rained for so long (that) some people haven't left their homes.
 They've had such a lot of rain (that) many houses have been flooded.
 Note: We often leave out that.
- We use so (NOT such) with many and much. (See Unit 60.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Put in so or such.

- 1 The north of England hasn't had ... a lot of rain for months.
- 2 The wind was ... strong that trees were blown down.
- $3\,\,$ In the east of England they haven't had ... much rain.

ANSWERS TO 1 1 quite/fairly/pretty 2 quite 3 fairly/pretty

^{2 1} quite 2 quite quite

^{3 1} Yes 2 No 3 Yes

Practice

with adjective with adverb with verb with comparative quite: auite slow quite slowly I quite agree rather: rather slow rather slowly I rather like rather better fairly/pretty: fairly/pretty slow fairly/pretty slowly X so + adjective on its own: I'm so hungry. so + much/many + (adjective) + noun: so many interesting people such + alan (+ adjective) + noun: such a good film such (+ adjective) + plural noun: such difficult questions such (+ adjective) + uncountable noun: such terrible weather such + a lot of (+ adjective) + noun: such a lot of empty seats

1 Complete this school report, using *quite* + a positive adjective and *rather* + a negative adjective.

Science: Katherine is (1) good at
Physics but her Chemistry is
(2) weak.
French: Katherine's pronunciation is
(3) poor but her writing is
(4) a lot better.
English: She writes (5) interesting
essays but her spelling is still
(6) bad.
History: She finds History (7)
difficult although she is obviously

2 Complete this dialogue, using *quite*, *rather*, *fairly* or *pretty*. It is sometimes possible to use more than one of these words.

(8) intelligent.

(8) a long book. Do you want to

niov it. But I'm afraid it's

borrow it?'
'No, it's (9) all right thanks. I'm reading a (10) more interesting book at the moment.'

3 Complete the following text, using such or so.

Truck driver Ed Johnson from Red Oak, Texas, felt (1) ill he went to the Glenwood hospital in Fort Worth. Doctors there decided he was (2) a difficult case they needed to consult a heart specialist from Dallas. He told Mr Johnson it wasn't (3) a serious problem after all and he only needed a minor heart operation. Two weeks later Mr Johnson was feeling (4) much better the doctors decided he could go home. He thanked the nurses for being (5) kind and went to the desk to ask for the bill. There they told him that he'd spent (6) a long time in hospital and he'd had (7) a lot of tests, that the bill came to \$27,964, Mr Johnson was (8) shocked he dropped dead of a heart attack.

Adverbs of degree: a lot, a bit, much, etc. More, most, better, best, etc.

The American Marianne Rich is only 16, but she's already a tennis star. 'I started playing when I was 5. My father helped me a little, but then I got my own tennis coach when I was 6. I played a lot between the ages of 7 and 14 - at least four hours a day. Life wasn't easy. I didn't like it very much. I was getting a bit bored with tennis. And I didn't see my friends much. Last year I injured my back. It hurt so much I had to go into hospital. For six months after the injury I couldn't play as much, and at last I could relax a bit. I enjoyed that very much, and after those six months I felt a lot stronger and very much happier. And I started to play much more positively.'

Step 1

A lot, much, etc. used alone or before an adjective or adverb

• We can use *a lot, a little, a bit, much, very much, so much, as much* on their own, as adverbs. They tell us something more about the verb.

My father helped me a little.

(How much did your father help you? He helped me a little.)

• We normally put them after the main verb and its object.

	main verb	+	object +	adverb
My father	helped		me	a little.
I	didn't like		it	very much.
I	didn't see		my friends	much.

• Note that we can use *very much* in positive or negative sentences. But we can only use *much* on its own (without *very*) in negative sentences.

I enjoyed that **very much**. (NOT I enjoyed that much.) I didn't like it **very much**. I didn't see my friends **much**.

• We often use *a lot, a bit, a little, much, very much, so much* before a comparative adjective or adverb.

I felt a lot stronger and very much happier.

I started to play much more positively.

Note: *Much* + adjective or adverb can be used in positive sentences.

A bit and a little (but not a lot, much, very much, so much) can also be used with an adjective not in the comparative form.

I was getting **a bit bored** with tennis.

• A lot means the same as very much. A bit means the same as a little but it's less formal and is used more often.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Add the words in brackets to the sentences.

- 1 Marianne didn't like practising. (very much)
- 2 When she was in hospital, her friends didn't visit her. (much)
- 3 She sometimes feels tired (a bit).
- 4 But generally she feels happier now. (a lot)

'Nowadays I practise less, perhaps only fourteen hours a week. I haven't got time to practise, because I travel a lot more. I play in tournaments all over the world. I like Wimbledon most. I love the grass courts there. I play best on grass. It's strange, but the tournament I like least is the American Open at Flushing Meadow. I always play worst there. I don't know why. Perhaps I'll do better this year.'

• The comparative forms *more*, *less*, *better*, *worse* and the superlative forms *most*, *least*, *best*, *worst* can be used on their own, as adverbs of degree. We usually put them after the main verb and its object.

Nowadays I practise less.

(= I don't practise as much as I used to.)

the tournament I like **least**

- (= I prefer all the other tournaments.)
- I like Wimbledon **most**. (= Wimbledon is my favourite.)

I always play worst there.

- (= I play better at all the other tournaments.)
- We can use a lot, a bit, much, very much, so much before more, less, better, worse. I travel a lot more now. OR I travel much more now.

Note that we can use *much* in positive sentences as well as in negative sentences, when it comes before *more*, *less*, *better*, *worse*.

• *Most, least, best, worst* can also be used with adjectives formed from the past participle of verbs.

Wimbledon is **the best known** tennis tournament in the world. Marianne is **the most photographed** tennis player in the USA.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Rewrite the sentences, using less, least and worse.

- 1 She doesn't practise as much now. She practises ...
- 2 She prefers all the other tournaments to the American Open. She likes ...
- 3 She played two sets against the Wimbledon champion. She played better in the first set than in the second. She played ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 Marianne didn't like practising very much. 2 ... her friends didn't visit her much.
 - 3 She sometimes feels a bit tired.
 - 4 But generally she feels a lot happier now.
- 2 1 She practises less now. 2 She likes the American Open least. 3 She played worse in the second set than in the first.

Still, yet Any more/any longer/no longer

Bill Myers is 82, but he still acts like a 50-year-old. He still plays tennis. He still drives a car. He's still interested in women and he's got a 'girlfriend' called Doris, who's 79. He asked her to marry him five years ago. He's still waiting for her answer!

Step 1

Still in affirmative sentences and questions

• We use *still* (= up to now) to talk about an action or a situation that is continuing longer than we expected.

He **still** plays tennis. (We don't expect an 82-year-old to play tennis.)

• In affirmative sentences we put *still* after the verb *be*, before a main verb on its own, and between an auxiliary and the main verb. In questions we put *still* after the verb *be* and after the auxiliary.

the verb be He's Is he	+	still still interested in women. still interested in women?
	still	+ main verb
Не	still	plays tennis.
Does he	still	play tennis?
He's	still	waiting for her answer!
Is he	still	waiting for her answer?

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put still into these sentences.

- 1 Bill's interested in tennis.
- 2 He's got a 'girlfriend'.
- 3 Doris is his 'girlfriend'.

Step 2

Still and yet in negative sentences

Bill lost his glasses last night. His daughter's phoning him:

'Have you found your glasses yet?'

'No, I've looked everywhere in the house, but I still haven't found them.

Of course they may be in the car. I haven't looked there yet.'

'Have you phoned the optician's?'

'I can't read the number in the phone book, so I haven't phoned them yet.'

'How's Doris?'

'She's fine. She's coming to see me this morning, but she hasn't arrived yet.'

'Has she said "yes" yet?'

'No, she still hasn't given me an answer.'

- We use yet (= 'up to now') in negative sentences and in questions when we talk about something that hasn't happened, but that we expect to happen in the future. We normally put yet at the end of the sentence or clause. (See also Unit 8.)
 - She hasn't arrived yet. Has Doris said 'yes' yet?
- In negative sentences, if we want to emphasise that something hasn't happened up to now, we use *still*, not *yet*.

Bill hasn't found his glasses yet. He's looked everywhere but he still hasn't found them. (He hasn't found them, even after looking everywhere.)

Here, we put *still* before the auxiliary (*hasn't*, *doesn't*, etc.).

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in yet or still.

- 1 Doris hasn't said 'yes' to Bill ... 2 She ... hasn't answered him.
- 3 Bill lost his glasses last night and he's ... looking for them.
- 4 He hasn't phoned the optician's ...

Step 3

Any more, any longer, no longer

Things have changed for Bill. He and Doris don't see each other any more. Three weeks ago he told her: 'Doris, if you can't decide, I can't wait any longer.' He sees her occasionally in town, but they no longer speak to each other, and Doris doesn't visit him any more. At first Bill missed Doris, but he doesn't miss her any more and he's no longer lonely. Two months ago he met Gladys, who's 81, in the club. He's no longer got a girlfriend. He's got a wife! He married Gladys yesterday!

• We use *any more* and *any longer* in negative sentences to say that a past situation has now finished. We put them at the end of the sentence. *Any more* is more common than *any longer*.

They don't see each other any more. (OR any longer)

I can't wait any longer. (OR any more)

• We can use a positive verb + *no longer* instead of a negative verb + *any more/any longer*. *No longer* isn't used as often as *any more/any longer* and is more formal.

They **no longer speak** to each other.

(= They don't speak to each other any more.)

He **no longer** misses Doris. (= He doesn't miss Doris any more.)

• We put *no longer* after the verb *be*, before a main verb on its own, and between an auxiliary and the main verb.

the verb be + no longer

He's no longer lonely.

auxiliary + no longer + main verb

They no longer speak to each other.

He's (has) no longer got a girlfriend.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put any more/any longer or no longer in these sentences.

- 1 Bill speaks to Doris. 2 They aren't going to get married.
- 3 Bill couldn't wait for an answer. 4 Doris visits him.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 Bill's still interested in tennis. 2 He's still got a girlfriend. 3 Doris is still his girlfriend.
- 2 1 yet 2 still 3 still 4 yet

3 1 Bill no longer speaks to Doris. 2 They aren't going to get married any more/any longer.
 3 Bill couldn't wait any longer for an answer. OR Bill couldn't wait for an answer any longer/any more. 4 Doris no longer visits him.

Too and enough

This is part of a speech given at a political meeting.

'This government has been in power for a very long time. In fact they've been in power for too long. They've made too many mistakes and wasted too much money. But they're much too proud to admit it or they're too stupid to realise it. It's too easy for ministers to say "Be patient. Things are getting better." We've heard that far too many times. It's too late for them to say that now ...'

Step 1

Too

• *Too* means 'more than is necessary'. It doesn't mean the same as *very*. *Too* always has a negative meaning. *Very* is neutral. It can have a positive or negative meaning, depending on the word that follows. We can say *very good* or *very bad*.

This government has been in power for a very long time.

(a very long time = a simple fact)

In fact they've been in power for **too long**.

(too long = a criticism, a negative comment)

- We often use too before an adjective or an adverb.
 They're too proud to admit it. (adjective)
 The government has been in power for too long. (adverb)
- Note the use of *too* in this construction:

too+adjective/adverb+(for + object)+infinitiveThey'retoostupidto realise it.It'stooeasyfor ministersto say.It'stoolatefor themto say.

• We also use *too many* + a countable noun and *too much* + an uncountable noun. (See also Unit 63.)

They've made too many mistakes. (countable noun) They've wasted too much money. (uncountable noun)

• We can put the words much, far, a little, a lot, a bit before too. far too many times they're much too proud

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in too+ one of these words: many (x 2), much, easy, long.

- 1 15 years in power is ... for any government.
- 2 Some people think governments have ... power.
- 3 And it's ... for them to say things will get better.
- 4 ... ministers have made ... mistakes.

'... The country's in a mess. Some people don't have enough to eat. There's never enough money for schools or hospitals. But there's always enough for motorways and nuclear submarines. This government has been in power for long enough. Even some of its supporters are honest enough to admit it. Government ministers say, "Give us more time." It's easy enough for them to say that. But they've had enough time. They've had enough opportunities. And now we've heard enough of their promises. The people of this country have had enough of this government!'

• *Enough* means 'a sufficient number or amount'. It normally comes before a noun (countable or uncountable).

They've had enough opportunities. (= a sufficient number)
They've had enough time. (= a sufficient amount)

Enough comes after an adjective or adverb.
 It's easy enough for them to say that.
 This government has been in power for long enough.

• We use *enough* + noun.

There's never enough money. (NOT enough of money)

But, we use *enough* + of before pronouns (*him*, *them*, etc.) or words like *the*, *this*, *my*, etc. + a noun.

And now we've heard enough of their promises.

The people of this country have had **enough of this** government.

- *Enough* can be used on its own when the noun is understood. *There's always enough for motorways.* (= enough money)
- Note the use of *enough* in these constructions:

			adject	ive +	enou	gh	+	infinitive	with	1 to
	Its supporters	s are	hones	t	enoug	gh		to admit i	t.	
	adj	ective	+	enough	+	for	+	object	+	infinitive with to
	It's eas	sy		enough		for		them		to say that.
				enough +		(noun) +		infinitive with to		
They've had They don't have				enough time enough		time	to improve the situation			e situation.
								to eat.		

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Add enough to these sentences.

- 1 It's easy for ministers to make promises.
- 2 They don't understand the country's problems well.
- 3 There aren't hospitals or schools.
- 4 There's always money to build more roads.

Rewrite the sentences, using enough of.

- 5 We don't want this government any more. We've had ...
- 6 We don't want to see their failed policies any more. We've seen ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 too long 2 too much 3 too easy 4 Too many too many
- 2 1 It's easy enough 2 well enough 3 enough hospitals or schools 4 enough money
 5 We've had enough of this government.
 6 We've seen enough of their failed policies.

Time prepositions: in, at, on

In the 1930s a lot of people tried to break flying records. At that time Douglas Corrigan was a young pilot, and in 1938 he decided to try to fly solo, non-stop across the USA. He planned to leave early in the morning, and on the morning of Monday July 16th, 1938, at dawn, Corrigan took off from an airport near New York, exactly on time. He expected to land in California in about twenty-three hours, just in time to celebrate his birthday on July 17th. In the summer there are usually clear skies over the USA, but in July that year the weather was bad and Corrigan had to fly in thick cloud. At 16.20 on Tuesday afternoon, at the end of a heroic flight, he landed - in Ireland, not California! He'd made the flight in twenty-eight hours, but he'd flown east, not west! After the flight he was always called Douglas 'Wrong Way' Corrigan!

Step 1

In before periods of time

We use *in* with periods of time:

- parts of the day: early in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening
- months: in July, in October
- seasons: in (the) summer, in (the) autumn, in (the) winter, in (the) spring
- years: in 1938, in 1995, in 2001
- decades and centuries: in the 1930s, in the 21st century
- In can mean 'during or within a period of time'. He'd made the flight in twenty-eight hours.

In can also mean 'at the end of a period of time'. He expected to land in California in about 23 hours.

 Note that the phrase in time means 'early enough for something' or 'not too late for something'.

just in time to celebrate his birthday on July 17th La tiempo de

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer the questions.

- 1 When did a lot of people try to break flying records?
- 2 In which year did Corrigan make his famous flight?
- 3 In which month?

Step 2 On before days/dates

We use on before particular days or particular dates:

- days: on Monday, on Tuesday, on his birthday, on Christmas Day
- dates: on July 17th, on November 2nd
- with parts of days/dates: on Tuesday afternoon, on Friday evening, on the morning of Monday, July 16th
- Note that the phrase on time means 'at exactly the right time'. Corrigan left exactly **on time**.

Put *in* or *on* before these words and phrases.

1 Monday morning 2 Tuesday 3 July 16th 4 1938

Step 3

At before exact times

We use at:

• with clock times: at 16.20, at six o'clock

But we don't normally use at in questions like:

What time did he leave New York?

(At what time did he leave New York? is very formal.)

- with single words meaning a time of day. at dawn, at midday, at lunchtime, at night
- with beginning, start, end. at the end of a heroic flight at the beginning of the flight
- with the words time, moment. at that time he was a young pilot at the moment (= now)
- with public holidays and festivals. at Christmas (BUT on Christmas Day) at Easter (BUT on Easter Sunday. See Step 2 above.) at the weekend ('on the weekend' in American English.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in or on or at before these words and phrases.

1 10.15 2 dawn 3 the winter 4 1911 5 the start of the flight 6 breakfast

Step 4 When not to use *in*, on or at

• We don't use in, on or at before the words every, next, this, last and tomorrow, yesterday.

Corrigan's making his flight **next Monday**. (NOT on next Monday)

He thinks about his flight every day. (NOT on every day)

He left New York this morning. (NOT on this morning)

He hopes to arrive in California tomorrow morning.

(NOT on tomorrow morning)

He landed in Ireland last Tuesday. (NOT on last Tuesday)

CHECK QUESTIONS 4

Put in, on or at or no word at all before these words and phrases.

- 1 every evening 2 the evening 3 yesterday evening 4 this evening
- 5 tomorrow evening 6 the evening of July 16th 7 next Christmas
- 8 three o'clock in the morning

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3 AND 4

- 1 1 In the 1930s. 2 In 1938. 3 In July.
- 2 1 on Monday morning 2 on Tuesday 3 on July 16th 4 in 1938
- 3 1 at 10.15 2 at dawn 3 in the winter 4 in 1911 5 at the start of the flight 6 at breakfast
- 4 1 every evening 2 in the evening 3 yesterday evening 4 this evening 5 tomorrow evening 6 on the evening of July 16th 7 next Christmas 8 at three o'clock in the morning

Prepositions of place: in, on, at

There was an article in the Daily Mail recently about the number of homeless people in Britain.

Jason Mitchell lives in a tent in the park in the middle of a square in London. He sleeps in a sleeping bag. He hasn't slept in a bed since he was in hospital last year. His dog sleeps with him in a corner of the tent. He used to live in the country, but it's easier to find food in the city. He finds food in the waste bins in the street, outside restaurants. But when he's got some money in his pocket, he eats in cheap cafés.

Step 1

In





- In general, we use *in* when we talk about an enclosed space that is surrounded on all sides.
 - He lives in a tent. He sleeps in a sleeping bag.
- We use it with buildings and areas surrounded by walls, etc.
 in cheap cafés in the park in a square in the street
- with larger areas like cities, states, countries, continents. *in the city in the country in London in Britain*
- with words that describe the relative position of something.
 in the middle of the square in a corner of the tent
 in the south of England
- with words like hospital, church, school. He was **in hospital** last year.
- with newspapers and magazines. an article in the Daily Mail

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

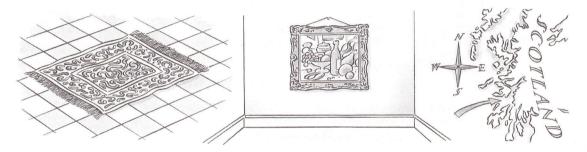
Add in where necessary.

- 1 There are lots of homeless people Britain, especially London.
- 2 You read about them every day the newspapers.
- 3 Jason doesn't live a house. He lives a tent.

Alexander Berrisford, an international art dealer, lives on the top floor of an apartment building on the north bank of the River Thames. There are Persian rugs on the floor of his apartment and valuable paintings on the walls.

Alexander often sits on his balcony. On the left he can see Tower Bridge and on the right Westminster Bridge. On the other side of the river he can see the National Theatre.

He's got two other homes - a castle on an island on the west coast of Scotland, and a villa on a lake on the border between Italy and Austria. He does most of his work on the phone and on his computer. He's quite famous. He's often on television and this morning his photograph was on the front page of the newspapers.



- In general, we use *on* when we talk about a horizontal or vertical surface. on the floor on the front page on the walls
- We use it with any kind of line. on the north bank of the River Thames on the border between Italy and Austria on the west coast of Scotland
- with machines. on the phone on his computer on television
- with the positions *right* and *left* and the word *side*. on the right on the left on the other side of the river

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Add on where necessary.

- 1 Alexander's apartment's the top floor.
- 2 He's guite famous and he's often the radio and television.
- 3 His castle's the north coast of the island.

The Perring family also live in London, at 89, Elm Road, Balham. Alan Perring works at the garage near his house. Carol Perring works at the newsagent's at the end of the road. Their two children are at the local primary school. They meet their friends at the children's playground at the bottom of the hill.

At the front of the Perrings' house there's a small garden. At the back, there's a bigger garden.

The Perrings spend most evenings at home. But sometimes they meet their friends at the Ten Pin Bowling at the corner of the street. And Alan sometimes sees his friends at a football match on Saturday.



- In general, we use at when we talk about a particular point.
 The playground's at the bottom of the hill.
 The Ten Pin Bowling's at the end of their road.
 At the back of the house there's a garden.
- We use *at* with a building when we're thinking about what normally happens there, and not about the building itself.

Alan works at the garage. Carol works at the newsagent's.

Compare: 'There's a dog in the newsagent's.' (= inside the four walls of the shop.) Compare also:

The Perrings live in Balham. (= surrounded by houses, etc.) The train stops at Balham. (= a point on the railway line.)

- Note that we say at the corner of the street (a point) but in the corner of the room (a place surrounded on all sides).
- We use at with social activities:
 Alan Perring sometimes sees his friends at a football match.
 I'll meet you at the theatre/at the cinema/at the party.
- Note these expressions: at home, at work, at school.

 The Perrings spend most evenings at home. Alan doesn't have lunch at work.
- With addresses, we use *at* if we give the house number. *They live in Elm Road.* BUT *They live at 89, Elm Road.* (In American English we say 'They live **on** Elm Road.')

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Add at or in where necessary.

- 1 There's a Ten Pin Bowling Balham, the corner of Elm Road.
- 2 During the day, the Perrings' children are school.
- 3 The children have got friends who live 16, Elm Road.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

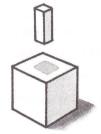
- 1 1 in Britain in London 2 in the newspapers 3 in a house in a tent
- 2 1 on the top floor 2 on the radio on television
- 3 on the north coast
- 3 1 in Balham at the corner 2 at school 3 at 16, Elm Road.

Prepositions of place: under, opposite, etc.

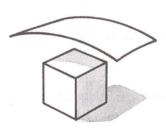
I wanted to live outside London and I was looking for a flat in Richmond. The estate agent took me to see one. The flat was opposite a church, near Richmond Park. It was above a Chinese restaurant. We stood on the pavement in front of the restaurant. It was raining so I held a newspaper over my head. The entrance to the flat was round the side of the restaurant. I asked the agent where I could park my car. He said there was a parking place behind the restaurant. 'Now, would you like to see inside the flat?' he asked me.

Step 1

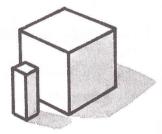
Outside, inside, behind, in front of, above, over, near, round, opposite



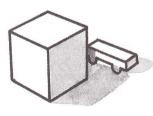
It was **above** a restaurant.



I held a newspaper **over** my head.



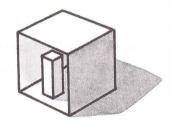
in front of the restaurant



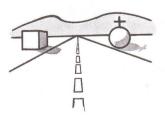
a parking place **behind** the restaurant



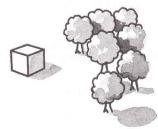
I wanted to live **outside** London.



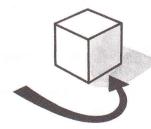
Would you like to see inside the flat?



It was opposite a church



near Richmond Park.



The entrance was **round** the side of the restaurant.

• *Above* and *over* usually have the same meaning: 'higher than'. The flat was **above** (OR **over**) a restaurant.

But over can sometimes mean 'covering'.

I held a newspaper over my head.

• We use *inside* rather than *in* to emphasise the interior of an enclosed space. A flat **in** Richmond. Would you like to see **inside** the flat?

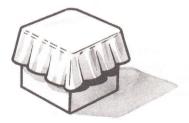
CHECK QUESTIONS 1 Complete the sentences with prepositions.

- 1 Richmond is ... London.
- 2 The flat was ... a restaurant.
- 3 It was ... Richmond Park.
- 4 She could park her car ... the restaurant.

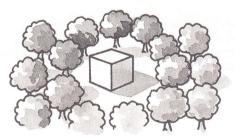
Step 2

Among, between, under, below, on top of, next to, beside, by

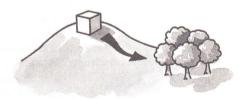
There were four rooms in the flat. The bathroom was between the bedroom and the living room. The kitchen was next to the living room. In the living room there was a table and two chairs under an old sheet. 'All included in the price!' the agent said. The flat was by the Thames, on top of a hill, and there was a lovely view. I stood beside the estate agent at the living room window. I could see Richmond Park below us. There were some deer among the trees in the park. And I could see the river between the trees. Suddenly we heard a loud crash below us and people shouting in Chinese. 'Have you got any other flats?' I said.



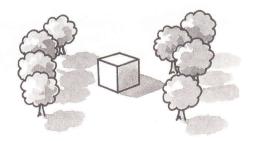
a table and two chairs under an old sheet



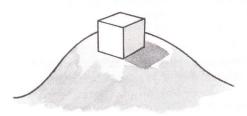
some deer **among** the trees



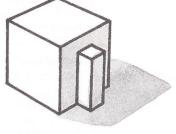
I could see the park below us.



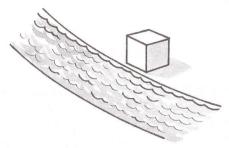
I could see the river between the trees.



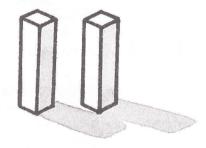
The flat was **on top of** a hill.



The kitchen was **next to** the living room.



The flat was by the Thames.



I stood beside the agent.

• Below and under often have the same meaning: 'lower than'.

The restaurant kitchen was below (OR under) the living room.

But we use below and not under when we mean 'lower than', but not necessarily 'directly under':

I could see the park **below** us. (NOT vertically under them) We use *under* when we mean 'covered by'.

There was a table **under** an old sheet. (The sheet covered it.)

• *Among* and *between* don't mean the same. We say something or someone is *between* two or more things when we see these things as separate objects.

I could see the river between the trees.

(She could see it in the space that separated one tree from another.)

We say that something is *among* a group of things or people when it's surrounded by them. We don't see these things or people separately.

There were some deer **among** the trees. (The deer were in the middle of the trees.)

• By, next to and beside all mean 'very close to'. Compare:
The flat was by the Thames. (= very close to the river)
The flat was near the Thames. (= close to - further away than by)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences with prepositions.

- 1 The agent stood ... her and showed her the view.
- 2 They could see Richmond Park ... them, because they were ... a hill.
- 3 There were some children playing ... the trees in the park.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 outside 2 above/over 3 near 4 behind
- 2 1 beside/next to 2 below on top of 3 among

Prepositions of movement: up, down, etc.

Yesterday Miss Ada Jenkins of Cardiff tried for half an hour to catch her cat Floss to give it some medicine. But it ran away from her. It ran out of the kitchen, up the stairs, round and round the bedroom, down the stairs again, in and out of the living room, from the living room into the kitchen and finally into the back garden. She chased it round the garden pond. Then the cat climbed up a tree and couldn't get down. So Miss Jenkins went to the phone and rang the Fire Brigade. Ten minutes later they arrived. The firefighters took a ladder off the fire engine. They then carried it through the hall and the kitchen and into the back garden.

Step 1

Up, down, round, into, out of, off, through, to, from



The cat ran away from her.



up the stairs



from the living room



round the garden pond.



They took a ladder off the fire engine.



It ran out of the kitchen



down the stairs



into the back garden



She went to the phone.



They carried it through the hall.

• We can join some of these prepositions with and: round and round, up and down, in and out of, on and off, to and from



round and round the bedroom



in and out of the living-room

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Complete the sentences with prepositions of movement.

- 1 Miss Jenkins followed the cat ... the stairs and ... the bedroom.
- 2 The cat ran ... the house and ... the garden.
- 3 The firefighters had to carry the ladder ... the hall and the kitchen because they couldn't get ... the side of the house.

One of the firefighters climbed up the tree, then along a branch towards the cat. Floss moved onto another branch! But twenty minutes later the firefighter climbed down with Floss in his arms. Just as the fire engine was leaving, Floss ran past Miss Jenkins and jumped over the garden fence. The cat then ran across the road and under the wheels of the fire engine. Unfortunately, the driver couldn't stop in time.



along a branch



towards the cat



onto a branch



The cat ran past Miss **Jenkins**



and jumped over the garden fence.



The cat ran across the road



and under the wheels of the fire engine.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Complete the sentences with prepositions of movement.

- 1 The firefighter climbed up the ladder ... the cat.
- 2 They walked ... the road to their fire engine parked on the other side.
- 3 They put their ladder back ... the fire engine.

- 1 up into 2 out of into 3 through round
- 2 1 towards 2 across 3 onto

84

Prepositions used for travel and transport: by bus, go to, arrive at

Every year students at Bristol University have a competition to see who can travel the furthest in 24 hours, without spending any money on transport. Last year the winner was Danny Green. 'I couldn't travel by air or by rail, because you need a ticket to go by plane or by train and we weren't allowed to spend any money on transport. You can't usually travel free on a plane or on a train, so the

only solution was to go by road and to get a lift in a car or a truck.'

Step 1

Go by air, by train, etc. on a bus/in a car

- To talk about different ways of travelling we use by + air, rail, road, sea and + train, bus, coach, car, plane, boat, taxi, etc. with the verbs go, come, travel.

 I couldn't travel by air or by rail. You need a ticket to go by plane or by train.
- We use *on* with different kinds of public transport: *on a train, a plane, a boat, a ferry, a hovercraft, a tram, a bus, a coach.* (But we also use *on* with *a bike, a motorbike, a horse.*)

We use *in* with other forms of transport: *in a car, a truck, a taxi, a small boat* or *plane*.

You can't travel free **on** a plane or **on** a train. to get a lift **in** a car or a truck

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in prepositions.

- 1 Danny knew he couldn't go ... air or ... rail.
- 2 He couldn't go ... a bus or ... a coach, because that cost money.
- 3 He had to go ... road, ... a car or ... a truck.

Step 2

Get into/out of a car, on/off a train Go into/out of a building Arrive in a town/a country Arrive at a place

Danny continued: 'I did the first two kilometres of my trip on foot – I went out of the university building and into the first shop I could find to buy some food. Then I walked to the beginning of the motorway. I got into the first car that stopped for me. The driver was going to London. We got to London at 2.15. I got out of the car, and my next lift was even better - a motorcyclist. I got on his motorbike and I arrived in Folkestone, on the south coast, at 4.30. When I got off the motorbike, I walked for a bit and arrived at the Shuttle Terminal ten minutes later. Now I needed to get to France as quickly as possible. I had to get on a train and through the Channel Tunnel – without paying!'

- Note that we say *on foot* and not 'by foot'. *I did the first two kilometres on foot*. (= I walked.)
- We use *out of* and *into* when we're talking about buildings or rooms. *I went out of the university building and into the first shop I could find.*

- We say to get into (OR in) /out of a car, a taxi, a truck, etc. I got into (OR in) the first car that stopped for me. I got **out of** the car, and my next lift was even better.
- We say to get on/off a train, a bus, a plane, a boat, a bike, a motorbike. I got **on** his motorbike. I got **off** the motorbike and walked for a bit.
- We say to get to a town or a country. We got to London at 2.15. Now I needed to get to France.
- But we say to arrive in a town or a country. I arrived **in** Folkestone at 4.30. When will he arrive **in** France?

And we say to arrive at a place. I arrived at the Shuttle Terminal ten minutes later. (See also In, on, at, Unit 81.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in prepositions.

- 1 He got ... the car and they got ... London two hours later.
- 2 When he arrived ... Folkestone he got ... the motorbike.
- 3 He soon arrived ... the Shuttle Terminal.

Step 3

Go to a place, a town or a country Go/get home

'At the terminal I found a car driver who had room for another passenger. We arrived in France half an hour later! My next lift was in a French truck. I told the driver I wanted to go to the south of France. Fortunately, the driver had been to England several times and he spoke English. He said he'd also been to Scandinavia, to Russia, to Italy and to Greece. He took me to Paris. I'd never been to Paris before. In fact I'd never been to France. Next, a woman in a big Mercedes took me all the way to the south coast. We got there just before 12 o'clock the next day. I went to the post office and posted a card to prove where I was after 24 hours - Marseille, 1,411 kilometres from Bristol! And it hadn't cost me a penny! Now it was time to go home again. But I didn't have to get home in 24 hours!"

- We say to go to a place, a town, a country, a continent. The truck driver had been to England several times. I told him I wanted to go to the south of France. I'd never been to Paris before. I went to the post office.
- Note that we don't use a preposition before the word *home* with verbs like *go*, get, come, arrive, leave.

I wanted to go home. I didn't have to get home in 24 hours.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Complete the sentences, using prepositions where necessary.

- 1 Had the truck driver been ... Scandinavia?
- 2 Had he been ... Greece?
- 3 After 24 hours Danny was ... Marseille.
- 4 He didn't know how to get ... home.

- ANSWERS TO 1 1 by by 2 on on 3 by in in
- CHECK QUESTIONS 2 1 into to 2 in off 3 at 1, 2 AND 3 3 1 to 2 to 3 in 4-

For, since, ago

The British have had the metric system for nearly 30 years. Some of them use it for two or three weeks a year when they go on holiday to continental Europe. But most of them still don't understand litres, kilometres and kilograms. In the 1970s, when the system was first introduced, they'd used pints and gallons, miles and pounds for a long time, and they didn't want to change. One old man said: 'When I was young, I lived in France for a year, but I couldn't understand kilometres and kilograms. I've used miles and pounds all my life. I can't change now. I'll go on using them for the rest of my life.'

Step 1

Time preposition for

- We use *for* to answer the question 'How long?' *For* is usually followed by a period of time, often a number of hours, days, weeks,
- months, years, etc.

 The British have had the metric system for nearly 30 years.
- I lived in France for a year.
- For can be used with past, present and future tenses.
- Present simple: They use it for two or three weeks a year.
- Present perfect: I've used miles and pounds for sixty years.
- Past perfect: They'd used pints and gallons for a long time.
- Past simple: I lived in France for a year.
- Future: I'll go on using them for the rest of my life!
- We don't use for with expressions like: all morning, all day, all evening, all year, all my life, etc.
 - I've used miles all my life. (NOT for all my life)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Use for in your answers.

- 1 How long have the British had the metric system?
- 2 How long did the old man live in France?
- 3 How long will he continue to use the word 'gallon'?

Step 2

Since

The British have had the metric system since the 1970s, and ever since then they've been unhappy about it. The old man said: 'It's a long time since I was in France. When I was there I always asked for "a litre" of beer. But then I came back to England, and I haven't used the word "litre" since. Of course, young people in Britain have used the metric system since they started school, so it's not a problem for them.'

• We use *since* + a point in time to say when something started: *The British have had the metric system since the 1970s*.

OR (with a negative verb) to say when something stopped. *The old man hasn't lived in France since 1952.*

- *Since* is often followed by a subject + a verb to show the point in time. *Young people have used it since they started school*.
- We usually use *since* with the present perfect. *The British have had the metric system* **since** 1971.
- We use *ever since* when we want to emphasise that something has continued without stopping for a period of time.

Ever since then the British have been unhappy about it.

- Since and ever since can be used on their own.

 I haven't used the word 'litre' since.
- Note these common expressions with since.
 It's a long time since I was in France.
 How long is it since the old man lived in France?
 (For since see also Units 8 and 90.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Answer these questions, using since.

- 1 How long have the British had the metric system?
- 2 When did the old man last use the word 'litre'? He hasn't used it ...

Step 3

Ago

The Americans started to introduce the metric system a long time ago, in 1785, when they changed 'pounds, shillings' and 'pence' to 'dollars' and 'cents'. Twenty years ago the American government announced plans to introduce more of the metric system. A few days ago an American senator asked: 'How long ago did we decide to make the change? Twenty years ago! And what has changed since then? Nothing!'

- We use *ago* to say when something happened in the past. *Twenty years ago* the American government announced plans. (Twenty years ago = twenty years before now.)
- We put *ago* after the expression of time. twenty years **ago** a few days **ago** (NOT ago twenty years)
- We use *ago* with the past simple (and sometimes with the past continuous). But we don't use it with the present perfect.

A few days ago an American senator asked.

(We can't say: 'A few days ago an American senator has asked.')

• Note these question forms:

How long ago did we decide to make the change? How many years ago did they introduce 'dollars' and 'cents'?

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Use ago in your answers.

- 1 When did the US government first plan to introduce the metric system?
- 2 When did the senator talk about the metric system?
- 3 How long ago did the USA change to 'dollars' and 'cents'?

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- ANSWERS TO 1 1 For nearly thirty years. 2 For a year. 3 For the rest of his life.
 - 1, 2 AND 3 2 1 Since the 1970s 2 since he lived in France.
- 3 1 Twenty years ago. 2 A few days ago. 3 A long time ago. OR Years ago.

For, during, while

For a long time Mr and Mrs Fuller had wanted to go on holiday abroad. In March 1995 they decided to go camping in France. For three months they planned their trip. Then on July 10th they arrived in France. For ten days they had a nice time, but then, one morning, their car broke down. They'd had the car for years and it had never broken down before. They sat in the car for ages, waiting for someone to stop and help them.

Step 1

For

- For answers the question 'How long?' (See Unit 85.)
 For three months they planned their trip.
 (NOT During three months they planned their trip.)
 For ten days they had a nice time.
 (NOT During ten days they had a nice time.)
- Note these common expressions with for:
 for hours, for days, for weeks, for months, for years, for ages.
 For a long time they'd wanted to go on holiday abroad.
 They sat in the car for ages.
 We don't use during in these expressions.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer these questions, using for.

- 1 How long had the Fullers wanted to go on holiday abroad?
- 2 How long had they had their car?
- 3 How long did they wait for help?

Step 2

During

At last a car stopped. The driver was English. His name was Brian Walters. During the conversation he told Mr and Mrs Fuller that he always spent two months in France during the summer, and during his holidays he'd learnt to speak French well. He phoned several garages for them. But it was Saturday and most garages were only open during the week. At last a mechanic arrived. He said he couldn't work on the car during the weekend and it would probably take a week to repair it!

• During doesn't mean the same as for.
For answers the question 'How long?'
During answers the question 'When? In what period of time?'

We use during before a fixed period of time (the day, the week, etc.).
 Most garages were only open during the week.

We don't use *during* with a number of days or weeks, etc.

The mechanic said he needed the car for a week. (= 1 week)

(NOT during a week)

- We use during before some form of activity.
 during his holidays during the conversation
- Note that when we say that something happens inside a particular period of time, we can use either *during* or *in*.

He spent two months in France during/in the summer.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Choose for or during.

- 1 The Fullers stayed at the first camp site (for/during) a week.
- 2 (For/During) the day they swam in the pool and sunbathed.
- 3 (For/During) their stay in France it only rained once.

Step 3

While

While the mechanic was talking to Mr Walters, Mr and Mrs Fuller discussed their problem. Mrs Fuller had to get back to England because she started work in two days. While they were trying to decide what to do, Mr Walters offered to take her to Paris to catch a train to Boulogne where she could get the ferry to England. 'Don't worry,' said Mr Fuller, 'While Brian's driving you to Paris, I'll look after the car and find a hotel.'

Mr Walters and Mrs Fuller arrived at the station in Paris. While she was getting her luggage out of the car, Mr Walters asked, in French, which platform the Boulogne train left from. Ten minutes later Mrs Fuller was on the train. While thinking how lucky she'd been to meet Mr Walters, she discovered, during a conversation with the woman in the next seat, that she was on a non-stop train to Bologna in Italy!

• While is a conjunction. It is followed by a subject + a verb.

During is a preposition. It is followed by a noun.

while the mechanic was talking to Mr Walters ... during a conversation with the woman in the next seat ...

- We often use while + the past continuous followed by a verb in the past simple.
 while they were trying to decide, Mr Walters offered to take ...
 (For the past continuous, see Unit 6.)
- When *while* is used in a future sentence, it's followed by a verb in the present and not *will*. (See Unit 87.)

While Brian is driving you to Paris, I'll look after the car.

We can use the -ing form of a verb after while.
 while thinking how lucky she'd been to meet Mr Walters ...

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Choose the right word to complete the sentences.

- 1 Mrs Fuller waited (for/during/while) Mr Walters asked about the train.
- 2 (For/During/While) she was waiting, she thought how lucky she was.
- 3 (For/During/While) a conversation on the train she discovered where it was going.
- 4 (For/During/While) a few minutes she couldn't believe what the woman had said.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 For a long time. 2 For years. 3 For ages.
- 2 1 for a week 2 During the day 3 During their stay in France
- 1 while Mr Walters asked about the train.
 2 While she was waiting 3 During a conversation on the train 4 For a few minutes

When, as soon as, etc. in future sentences

Four young people are talking about their future.

Simon: When I leave school, I'm going to train to be a teacher. Then, after I've qualified, I'll probably teach English abroad.

I'm going to buy a car when I've saved enough money. Then I'm going to get married as soon as I find the right man. I don't want to be alone when I'm older. But I don't want to get married before I'm 30.

Shanti: I don't want to settle down until I've travelled a lot. Once I've done that, I'll probably get married.

Harry: Jobs are difficult to find. I might be 25 by the time I get a job! I don't know what I want to do. I'll decide while I'm at college.

Step 1 When, etc. + a present tense or the present perfect

When we talk about the future, we use either a present tense (normally the present simple) or the present perfect after the link words when, as soon as, once, after, before, while, by the time, until (till). We don't use will.

When clause (present) + Main clause (future)

I'm going to train as a teacher. (NOT When I will leave) When I leave school,

When clause (present perfect) + Main clause (future)

I'll probably teach. (NOT After I will have qualified) After I've qualified, Note: When we use when as a question word, it can be followed by will or going to.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Answer these questions.

- 1 When's Beth going to get married? ... the right man.
- 2 Is she going to get married when she's 25? No, she ... 30.
- 3 When will Harry decide about his future?

Step 2

The simple present or the present perfect?

 It's often possible to use either the simple present or the present perfect after when, as soon as, etc. without changing the meaning.

I'm going to get married as soon as I find/I've found the right man.

 BUT when it's important to make it clear that one action will be finished before the second one starts, we must use the present perfect.

I don't want to settle down until I've travelled a lot.

(Shanti can't say until I travel. She can't settle down while she's travelling! So she uses the present perfect. She'll finish travelling, and then she'll settle down.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Is it essential to use the present perfect in these sentences? Yes, or no?

- 1 Shanti: Once I've done that, I'll probably get married.
- 2 Beth: I'm going to buy a car when I've saved enough money.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 As soon as she finds the right man. 2 She isn't going to get married before she's 30.
- 3 While he's at college.
- 2 1 Yes. 2 Yes.

By, by the time, till/until

Zoe and her boyfriend Ben are arranging to meet.

Ben: Can you be ready by 8.30?

Zoe: No, not by then. By the time I've had a bath it'll be quarter to nine. I could be ready by nine though.

Step 1

By, by the time

- By here is a preposition of time. It means 'not later than'.
 Can you be ready by 8.30? (= Can you be ready at 8.30 or before, but not later?)
 I could be ready by nine. (= at 9 o'clock or earlier, but not later)
 By is usually followed by a time or date (5.15, June 1st, etc.)
- By the time (that) is a linking phrase. It's always followed by a verb.
 By the time I've had a bath it'll be quarter to nine.
 (= not later than the moment she finishes her bath)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in by or by the time.

1 I can't be ready ... 8.30. 2 But we must be there ... 9. 3 ... we've finished this phone call it'll be 7 o'clock.

Step 2

Till/Until

Ben arrived at 8.55. But he had to wait until Zoe was ready, until 9.15. Zoe: I'm sorry I'm late. I had to work till 7.15 and we didn't eat till 8 o'clock. Then I had to wait till my sister had finished in the bathroom. And by then it was quarter to nine ...

• We use *till* or *until* when we talk about an activity or a situation which continues and then stops at a particular time.

I had to work **till** 7.15. (= She was working before 7.15 and stopped at 7.15.) Ben had to wait **until** 9.15. (= He was waiting before 9.15 and stopped at 9.15.)

- Till is short for until. Till is more common in informal English.
- Until and till can be link words or prepositions.
 He had to wait until Zoe was ready. (link word + a clause)
 We didn't eat till 8 o'clock. (preposition)
- By = not later than that time. Until = up to that time. Zoe wasn't ready by nine. (= She wasn't ready at or before 9.)

 Zoe wasn't ready till 9.15. (= She was ready at 9.15 but not before.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in by, by the time or till/until.

- 1 I didn't get home ... 7.45. 2 My sister was in the bathroom ... 8.45. 3 ... we'd had dinner, it was 8.30. 4 I've got to be home ... 12.
- ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2
- 1 1 by 2 by 3 By the time
- 2 1 till/until 2 till/until 3 By the time 4 by

Like and as As if/as though

Sue goes out to work all day. Then she comes home to her family and has to start work again.

'It's like this every day. I work like a slave at the factory and then I come home and the house is like a pig-sty. Other women like me come home and the dinner's cooked and the house is tidy. I wanted to be something exciting, like an air-hostess. But I just do boring things, like making beds and feeding the family. It's like having two full-time jobs, but this one's unpaid!'

Step 1

Like

- Note the two meanings of the preposition *like*:
- A We use *like* when we compare one thing or person with another. *Like* usually means 'similar to' or 'in the same way as'.

The house is **like** a pig-sty. (NOT as a pig-sty)

I work like a slave. (NOT as a slave)

- **B** *Like* can also be used when we mean 'for example'. *I just do boring things, like making beds.* (NOT as making) *I wanted to be something exciting, like an air-hostess.*
- *Like* is a preposition. We use it before a noun, a pronoun or the *-ing* form of a verb.

I work like a slave. (like + noun)

other women like me (like + an object pronoun)

It's like this every day. (like + a demonstrative)

It's like having two jobs. (like + the -ing form of a verb)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Find examples in the text of *like*. Which have meaning A and which have meaning B?

Step 2

As and as if/as though

Sue's angry again. 'Darren! Your clothes are all over the floor again, just as I expected. Now, do as I say! Put them away! Jessie, I'm not your servant. Will you please tidy your room! You all act as if you're guests in a hotel. And you treat me as though I was a hotel maid! As my friend Meg said, I do far too much for you.'

• We use as (= 'in the same way') before a subject + a verb. We don't normally use like here. (But see the note on informal English and American English below.)

Do as I say! (NOT Do like I say.)

Your clothes are all over the floor again, just as I expected.

• *As if* and *as though* both mean the same. We use them before a subject + a verb to say that two things are similar.

You act as if (OR as though) you're guests in a hotel.

• We sometimes use a past tense form after *as if/as though* when we're talking about the present:

You treat me as though I was (OR were) a hotel maid.

We use the past tense form (*was*) here to show how unreal the idea is. (Sue isn't a hotel maid.) We can also use *were* to emphasise this unreality.

• But if the speaker thinks that something is real, he or she can use the present tense.

You act as if you're guests in a hotel.

(Sue really thinks they behave like guests at a hotel!)

• In informal English, we often use *like* instead of *as, as if/as though. Like* is often used here in American English too.

like my friend Meg said (= As my friend Meg said)

You all act like you're guests in a hotel. (= as if you're guests)

• We often use *as if/as though* with a verb of perception (*look, feel, seem*, etc.) See Unit 33.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Put in as or as if.

- 1 Sue wants Darren to do ... she says.
- 2 Jessie acts ... her mother is her servant.
- 3 They treat the house ... it's a hotel.

Step 3

Like or as?

Sue works as a machinist during the day. In the evenings and at weekends she works as a mother and a housekeeper. She says she works like a slave, and her family treat the house like a hotel. When she has time she reads romantic novels. She uses them as an escape from reality.

• *As* can be used as a preposition followed by a noun. But it doesn't have the same meaning as *like* + a noun. We use *as* to say what someone or something really is. We use *like* to compare things or people:

During the day she works **as** a machinist. (She is a machinist.) Her family treat the house **like** a hotel. (The house isn't a hotel.)

• We also use *as* when we talk about the role or function of something. *She uses them as an escape from reality.*

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Put in like or as.

- 1 Is their house a hotel? No, but they treat it ... a hotel.
- 2 Sue works in a factory ... a machinist.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 Meaning A: It's like this. I work like a slave. The house is like a pig-sty. Other women like me. It's like having two full-time jobs. Meaning B: like an air-hostess. like making beds.
- 2 1 as 2 as if 3 as if
- 3 1 like 2 as

Although, though, even though In spite of Because, since, so

Although Britain isn't a very important country, the English language is very important all over the world. Nearly 400 million people speak English as their first language. English isn't the most widely used language in the world though. Mandarin (Northern Chinese) is spoken by 580 million people. But, in spite of being the most widely-used language, it isn't spoken by many people outside China. Even though there are about 800,000 words in English, many English speakers only use about 5,000. Learning a foreign language is difficult, but, in spite of the difficulty, more and more people are starting to learn English every year. They can try to learn 800,000 words if they want to, though they only need to know about 2,000 to speak English quite well!

Step 1

Although, though, even though and in spite of

- We use the link words *although, though, even though* to join two parts of a sentence. We use them to contrast two statements.
 - Although Britain isn't a very important country, the English language is very important all over the world.
 - (Contrast: Britain isn't important BUT the English language is.)
- We use *even though* when the contrast is particularly strong. *Even though* there are about 800,000 words in English, many English speakers only use about 5,000.

 (big contrast: 800,000 > 5,000)
- We can use though instead of although.

 They can try to learn 800,000 words, though they only need to know about 2,000.
- We can use *though* (NOT *although*) at the end of a sentence. *It isn't the most widely-used language in the world though. (= But it isn't the most widely-used language in the world.)*
- *In spite of* is usually followed by a noun, a pronoun or the *-ing* form of a verb. *In spite of the difficulty*, more and more people are starting to learn English every year.
 - (= although it's difficult, more and more people ...)
 - In spite of being the most widely used language, it isn't spoken by many people outside China.
 - (= although it's the most widely-used language)
- We can also use the expression in spite of the fact that.

 In spite of the fact that it's the most widely used language, it isn't spoken by many people outside China.

Rewrite the sentences using although and though.

- 1 In spite of the fact that I'm not very good at languages, I want to learn English.
- 2 English isn't easy to learn, in spite of being a very useful language. English isn't ...
- 3 But thousands of people learn it. Thousands ...

Many people from Europe and South America go to the USA because they need to do business there. And, since they have to speak to Americans, they have to learn English.

English is important because it's the language of business and science. As 75% of all business letters in the world are written in English, it's easy to see why business people want to learn it.

English is used for air and sea communications, so airline pilots and ships' officers have to learn it too.

But the importance of English is a problem for many British and American people. They think everybody in the world should speak English, so they refuse to learn any foreign languages!

• We use the link words *because*, *since* and *as* when we want to say why we do something or why something happens.

We normally use *because* to give the reason, and the *because* clause usually comes at the end.

We normally use *since* and *as* when the reason is already known. *Since* and *as* mean the same.

Many people from Europe and South America go to the USA **because** they need to do business there.

And since (OR as) they have to speak to Americans, they have to learn English.

• We use the link word so to talk about the result of an action or situation. They think everybody in the world should speak English, so they refuse to learn any foreign languages!

(For other link words see Units 40, 87 and 88.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Make single sentences, using because, since or so.

- 1 Air communications are in English. Airline pilots must learn it.
- 2 Many people in Europe want to work abroad. They have to learn a foreign language.
- 3 Many British and American people won't learn foreign languages. They think everybody should speak English.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 Although I'm not very good at languages, I want to learn English. 2 English isn't easy to learn although/though it's a very useful language. 3 Thousands of people learn it though.
- 2 1 Since/As air communications are in English, airline pilots must learn it. or Air communications are in English, so airline pilots must learn it. 2 Many people in Europe want to work abroad, so they have to learn a foreign language. 3 Many British and American people won't learn foreign languages because they think everybody should speak English.

Relative clauses with who, which, that

Bernard Thomas is from Cariacou, a small island which is part of the West Indies. He's come to Britain to live with a cousin who's got a house in Leeds. His cousin's telling him about the people who live in his street. 'You must meet Betty.'

'Who's Betty?'

'She's the one who looks like Margaret Thatcher.'

'Who's Margaret Thatcher?'

'She's the woman who was Prime Minister in the 80s. Betty's very patriotic. She's got a doorbell which plays the National Anthem when you press it! And then there's Tom Marchant.'

'Who's Tom Marchant?'

'He's the guy that used to play football for Manchester United. He's the one who lives at number 23, the house that's painted red and white.'

Step 1

Who/that for people Which/that for things

- He's come to live with a cousin **who's got a flat in Leeds**. who's got a flat in Leeds is a relative clause. A relative clause identifies a person or a thing. The clause who's got a flat in Leeds identifies the cousin.
- We use the relative pronoun who for people, and which for things.
 She's the one who looks like Margaret Thatcher.
 a doorbell which plays the National Anthem
- BUT we often use that instead of who and which.
 She's the one that looks like Margaret Thatcher.
 a doorbell that plays the National Anthem
 He's the guy that (OR who) used to play football for Manchester United.
 the house that's (OR which is) painted red and white

With people, we use who more often than that.

With things we use that more often than which.

Note: Sometimes we must use who and which, not that. (See Unit 93 Step 1.)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put in a relative pronoun.

- 1 Bernard's the man ... has just arrived from Cariacou.
- 2 Cariacou's an island ... is north of the South American coast.
- 3 Bernard's got a brother ... lives in Leeds.
- 4 His brother lives in a house ... was built in the 1920s.

Step 2

Who, which, that as objects, and whom

Bernard's cousin Irvin has lived in England for fifteen years. 'I like the job that I've got. I can live quite well on the money I earn. The people who I know at work are very friendly. I'd like to get married, but most of the women I meet have already got a husband! I really liked a girl I met in a pub the other day, but she was married. There's one thing which I don't like in England. The weather! I miss the Caribbean sun.'

• Who, which, that can be the subject of the relative clause.

She's the woman who was Prime Minister. (She was Prime Minister.)

We can't leave out who, which, that here.

• *Who, which, that* can also be the object of the relative clause.

I like the job that I've got. (I've got the job.)

The people **who** I know at work are very friendly. (I know the people.) There's one thing **which** I don't like in England. (I don't like one thing.)

When who, which, that are the object, we can leave them out. We usually leave them out in informal spoken English. We prefer to say:

I like the job I've got. The people I know at work are friendly.

There's one thing I don't like in England.

• We can use *whom* when the object is a person.

The people *whom* I know at work are very friendly.

But *whom* is very formal and rarely used in conversation. We usually leave out the pronoun, or we use *who* instead.

the people (who) I know

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Which relative pronouns are left out?

- 1 The women Irvin meets are usually married.
- 2 The thing Irvin misses is the Caribbean sun.

Step 3

Prepositions in relative clauses: The man I spoke to.

Irvin's making plans for Bernard. 'I'll take you to the club I go to. And you must meet the friends I play football with. We must find you a job too. The company I work for is looking for a truck driver. I'll ask Gary Miller about it. He's the man I spoke to last night in the club. We could ask Tom Marchant too. You know, the man I told you about. He owns a sports shop. He might have a job you can apply for.'

• When we use verbs followed by a preposition, the preposition usually comes at the end of a relative clause.

(I go to a club.)

I'll take you to the club I go to.

(I play football with friends.)
(I work for a company.)

You must meet the friends I play football with.

The company I work for.

• In very formal English we can put the preposition before whom or which. He's the man to whom I spoke last night in the club. He might have a job for which you can apply.

But in conversation we prefer to say:

He's the man **I spoke to** last night in the club. He might have a job **you can apply for**.

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Make relative clauses ending with a preposition.

- 1 (Irvin works for a company.) Britex is the company ...
- 2 (They're looking for a truck driver.) Bernard might be the man ...

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 who (preferable to *that*) 2 that/which 3 who (preferable to *that*) 4 that/which
- 1, 2 AND 3 2 1 that/who 2 that/which

- 3 1 Britex is the company he works for.
 - 2 Bernard might be the man they're looking for.

The relative pronouns where, whose, what

Helen Gore's 17. She's left school but she hasn't got a job. She's bored. 'The town where I live hasn't got anything for young people. We need a club where we can go and meet friends. Somewhere where we can play music and have a drink. It's boring here. I want to leave. I want to go where I can get a job. I want to live where I can have more fun.'

Step 1

Where in relative clauses

- We use the relative pronoun *where* to describe places: *the town where I live* ('where I live' describes the town) *We need a club where we can go and meet friends.*
- We can also use where without identifying the place it describes.
 I want to go where I can get a job.
 I want to live where I can have more fun.

Here, where = to a place/in a place where.

• Sometimes we can leave out *where* and add a preposition to the verb. *the town where I live* OR *the town I live in*

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Rewrite the sentences, using where.

- 1 The town *Helen lives in* is boring.
- 2 She wants to be *in a place where* it's possible to find a job.

Step 2

Whose in relative clauses

'I don't like living in a town where people are always talking about their neighbours. When they see someone in the street they say: 'She's the woman whose husband ran off with the doctor's wife. He's the man whose daughter the police arrested for selling drugs. He lives in the house whose curtains are always drawn. He's the owner of a company whose workers are very badly paid, and so on and so on.' They're only interested in other people's lives.'

• We often use the possessive word *whose* in relative clauses. It's always followed by a noun. It can be the subject or object of the verb. It can't be left out.

the woman **whose husband** ran off with the doctor's wife (Subject: **Her husband** ran off with the doctor's wife.) the man **whose daughter** the police arrested (Object: The police arrested **her**.)

• We use *whose* mostly for people. *the man whose* daughter the police arrested

But it can also be used for things.

the house whose curtains are always drawn a company whose workers are very badly paid

• Don't confuse: whose and who's (=who is or who has)

That's the man who's (= who is) the manager of the supermarket.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2 Make a single sentence, using whose.

- 1 She's the woman. Her dog attacked the postman.
- 2 He's the man. I saw his young son drinking whisky in the pub.
- 3 She owns the house. Its garden looks like a jungle.

Step 3

What in relative clauses

'This town's dead. That's what I think. And that's what worries me. I'm going to leave soon. I can't find what I want here. What I'd really like to do is live in London. I can do everything I want there. But I haven't got enough money. What I need is a job. But what's difficult is finding one.'

- The relative pronoun what means 'the thing(s) that'. It can be used as the subject or object of a verb.
 - I can't find what I want here. (Object = the things that I want) that's what worries me (Subject: = the thing that worries me)
- We can start a sentence with what if we want to emphasise something. What I'd really like to do is live in London. (= I'd like to live in London. That's the important thing.) What I need is a job. (= I need a job. That's the important thing.) What's difficult is finding a job. (= Finding a job is the most difficult thing.)
- Note that we don't use what after everything and all. (See Unit 61 Step 1.) I can do everything I want there. (NOT everything what I want)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Rewrite the sentences, using what.

- 1 The town can't give her the things she needs.
- 2 The thing she wants to do is go to London.
- 3 The thing that's difficult is that she hasn't got enough money.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 The town where Helen lives is boring. 2 She wants to be where it's easy to find a job.
- 2 1 She's the woman whose dog attacked the postman. 2 He's the man whose young son I saw drinking whisky in the pub. 3 She owns the house whose garden looks like a jungle.
- 3 1 The town can't give her what she needs. 2 What she wants to do is go to London. 3 What's difficult is that she hasn't got enough

money.

Defining and non-defining relative clauses

Jack Rimmer and his wife are looking at the boats in the marina at Portsmouth.

'Look! That's the man who's planning to sail round the world. And that's the boat he built himself, the one that's painted red and white. And the other man must be the man he's going with.'
Later that evening they heard this report on the local radio: 'Our reporter was at the marina this morning. He met 75-year-old Alan Weeks, who's planning to sail round the world. He also spoke to 73-year-old Gerry Banks, who Alan's going with. Alan's boat, which he built himself, is called *Morning Star. Morning Star*, which took Alan five years to build, is a 15-metre catamaran ...'

Step 1

Non-defining relative clauses

• There are two types of relative clause, defining (or identifying) and non-defining.

That's the man who's planning to sail round the world.

Here, the relative clause identifies 'the man'. It tells us which man the speaker's talking about.

Non-defining:

He met 75-year-old Alan Weeks, who's planning to sail round the world. Here, the man is already identified ('75-year-old Alan Weeks') so the relative clause doesn't identify him. It simply gives us extra information about him.

• Note that in written English we put a comma (,) before a non-defining relative clause. If it's in the middle of a sentence we put a comma after it as well.

'Morning Star', **which took Alan five years to build**, is a 15-metre catamaran. We don't put a comma before a defining relative clause.

That's the man who's planning to sail round the world.

• In defining relative clauses we can leave out *who*, *which* and *that* when they're objects. (See Unit 91.)

the man he's going with

(= the man who (OR that) he's going with)

the boat he built himself

(= the boat that (OR which) he built himself.)

But in non-defining relative clauses we can't leave out who and which.

He spoke to Gerry Banks, who Alan's going with.

Alan's boat, which he built himself, is called 'Morning Star'.

• We don't use *that* in non-defining relative clauses. We can't say: Alan's boat, that he built himself, is called 'Morning Star'.

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Put commas (,) where necessary.

- 1 Jack Rimmer saw the man who's going to sail round the world.
- 2 Alan Weeks is sailing with Gerry Banks who's a friend of his.
- 3 The boat that he built is called 'Morning Star'.
- 4 He's sailing from Portsmouth which is on the south coast of England.

The news report continued:

'Alan and Gerry, whose lifelong ambition has been to sail round the world, leave tomorrow. By this time next year they hope to be back in Portsmouth, where they're sure to receive a hero's welcome. Their trip is sponsored by Barclay's Bank, who Alan used to work for. The bank have sent Alan a card, which they've written a good luck message on. Alan and Gerry are going to be away for a long time, which will be difficult for their families. But Marjory Weeks, Alan's wife, said last night: "They're both doing something they've always wanted to do, which is marvellous."

We can also use where and whose in non-defining relative clauses.
 Alan and Gerry, whose lifelong ambition has been to sail round the world, leave tomorrow.

By this time next year they hope to be back in Portsmouth, where they're sure to receive a hero's welcome.

• In formal English we can use *whom* and *which* after a preposition in a non-defining relative clause.

Their trip is sponsored by Barclay's Bank, **for whom** Alan used to work. The bank have sent a card, **on which** they've written a message.

But in informal English we normally say:

Their trip is sponsored by Barclay's Bank, who Alan used to work for. The bank have sent a card, which they've written a message on.

Which can refer to a whole clause.
 They're going to be away for a long time, which will be difficult for their families.
 They're both doing something they've always wanted to do, which is marvellous.
 Note: We use which here, NOT what.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Make single sentences, using relative clauses.

- 1 That's Alan Weeks. I spoke to him this morning.
- 2 That's his boat 'Morning Star'. He's going to sail round the world on it.
- 3 The two men are over 70. This is amazing.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

- 1 1 Jack Rimmer saw the man who's going to sail round the world. 2 Alan Weeks is sailing with Gerry Banks, who's a friend of his. 3 The boat that he built is called 'Morning Star'. 4 He's sailing from Portsmouth, which is on the south coast of England.
- 2 1 That's Alan Weeks, who I spoke to this morning. OR (formal) That's Alan Weeks, to whom I spoke this morning. 2 That's his boat Morning Star, which he's going to sail round the world on. OR (formal) That's his boat Morning Star, on which he's going to sail round the world. 3 The two men are over 70, which is amazing.

Clauses with *-ing* or a past participle *With* in identifying phrases

A woman coming out of the Midland Bank in Tonbridge High Street was attacked this morning by two people carrying knives. Mrs Amy Hyde of Church Street, Tonbridge lost a handbag containing £35 in the attack. There were several people walking past the bank at the time. A man selling newspapers tried to help Mrs Hyde, but the attackers stabbed him repeatedly before escaping in a car waiting at the end of the street. The man injured in the attack has since died in hospital. A knife found on the pavement is thought to be the weapon used in the attack. There was a price ticket attached to the knife. The police are looking for a man in his 20s with jeans and a baseball cap, and a young woman with long blond hair and a silver ring in her nose. They were driving a blue Ford Escort with a broken side window. Anyone who saw the incident should contact the police on 0371 668453.

Step 1

-ing clauses

- We can use a clause with the -ing form of a verb to say what someone or something is doing or was doing.
 - A woman coming out of the Midland Bank
 - (= who was coming out)
 - She was attacked by two people carrying knives.
 - (= who were carrying)
- We can also use it to describe a situation that exists or existed.
 - a handbag containing \$35 (= that contained)
- The *-ing* form is often used with *There is/are/was/were*.
 - There were several people walking past the bank at the time.
- Note that these clauses are similar to relative clauses, but we must use a full relative clause for a completed action in the past.
 - Anyone who saw the incident
 - (NOT Anyone seeing the incident)

CHECK QUESTIONS 1

Make single sentences, using the -ing form.

- 1 A woman was attacked this morning. She was doing her shopping.
- 2 A young man stole her handbag. He was wearing a baseball cap.
- 3 He also stole a silver bracelet. It belonged to the woman.
- 4 There was a man near the bank. He was selling newspapers.

Step 2

Clauses beginning with a past participle

• We can also use a clause beginning with a past participle (*injured*, *used*, *found*, etc.). This type of clause has a passive meaning.

The man **injured** in the attack has since died. (= who was injured)

- A knife **found** on the pavement is thought to be the weapon **used** in the attack. (= that was found; that was used)
- A past participle is often used after *There is/are/was/were*. *There was* a price ticket attached to the knife.

CHECK QUESTIONS 2

Make single sentences, using a past participle.

- 1 They escaped in a car. It was parked at the end of the street.
- 2 The woman is Mrs Amy Hyde. She was attacked by the thieves.
- 3 The money hasn't been found. It was stolen from Mrs Hyde.

Step 3

With used to identify people and things

• We can use a noun + *with* to describe the physical features or possessions of someone or something.

a man in his 20s with jeans and a baseball cap

(= who was wearing jeans and a baseball cap)

a young woman with long blond hair and a silver ring in her nose

(= who had long blond hair and a silver ring in her nose)

a blue Ford Escort with a broken side window

(= that had a broken side window)

CHECK QUESTIONS 3

Make single sentences, using with.

- 1 A man attacked Mrs Hyde. He had short dark hair.
- 2 Later the police found an empty handbag. It had blood on it.
- 3 A boy was walking past the bank at the time of the attack. He had a dog.

ANSWERS TO CHECK QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

- 1 1 A woman doing her shopping was attacked this morning. 2 A young man wearing a baseball cap stole her handbag. 3 He also stole a silver bracelet belonging to the woman. 4 There was a man near the bank selling newspapers.
- 2 1 They escaped in a car parked at the end of the street. 2 The woman attacked by the
- thieves is Mrs Amy Hyde. 3 The money stolen from Mrs Hyde hasn't been found.
- 3 1 A man with short dark hair attacked Mrs Hyde. 2 Later the police found an empty handbag with blood on it. 3 A boy with a dog was walking past the bank at the time of the attack.

4

Phrasal verbs

(For the use of phrasal verbs, see Unit 32.)

to break down My car broke down and I had to walk home.

to break off to break up to bring up The United States has **broken off** diplomatic relations with Cuba.

Andy and Gemma have **broken up**; Gemma wants a divorce.

My father **brought** me **up**; my mother died when I was very young.

to burn down to call in

His house burned down last week and he lost everything.
I'll call in to see Joanna on my way home this evening.

to carry on The party carried on till 3 a.m.

to carry out \$100,000 has been stolen. The police are carrying out an investigation.

to catch up Don't wait for me. I'll catch you up.

to clear up a) The weather's clearing up. b) Your bedroom's in a mess. Clear it up!

to close down to come back

The factory has **closed down** so I've lost my job.
I've been to Greece. I **came back** yesterday.

to come off a) The button's **come off**. b) If my plan **comes off**, I'll be living in Hawaii next year. a) What time can you **come out** tonight? b) His new book **comes out** tomorrow.

to come round He came round to see me yesterday.

to cross out You haven't spelt the address correctly. Cross it out and write it again.

to cut down

a) They've cut all the trees down.
b) Cut down your smoking. You must smoke less.

to cut off They **cut off** his electricity because he hadn't paid his bill.
They didn't show the whole film on TV. They **cut out** the violent scenes.

to cut out
They didn't show the whole film on TV. They cut out the violent see
to do up
I've bought an old house in the country; I'm going to do it up.

to drop in **Drop in** and see me any time. You don't need to phone first.

to fall through My plans to go to New York have fallen through. I haven't got enough money.

to fill in Can you **fill in** this form, please, and sign your name at the bottom. I don't know where he lives, but I'll **find out** and tell you his address.

to get away The police ran after the thief, but he got away.

to get back We leave at 7 a.m. and we get back at 6 this evening. (= come back)

to get on She's **getting on** very well at college. Her results are good.

to get through I'm trying to phone her, but I can't **get through**. The line's engaged.

to get up I get up at 7 every morning.

to give away to give back I didn't want my old bike any more, so I gave it away.

I didn't want my old bike any more, so I gave it away.

I lent him some CDs, but he hasn't given them back yet.

to give in The police questioned him for three hours, until he **gave in** and admitted to the crime.

to give out Can you give the books out? Give one to each member of the class.

to give up I gave up the piano two years ago. I play the guitar now.

to go away! I don't want to talk to you. b) I'm going away for a week. (= for a holiday)

to go on The meeting went on for three hours.

to go out a) Gary went out at 7 and I haven't seen him since then. b) The lights suddenly went out.

to go up The price of petrol has gone up again.

to grow up to hand in When I arrived at the hotel I had to hand in my passport.

to hand over A man with a gun went into the bank and asked them to **hand over** all the money.

to hold up I'm sorry I'm late. The traffic **held** me **up**.

to keep on to keep out the wild animals.

My children keep on asking me to stop smoking.

They built a fence round the camp to keep out the wild animals.

to knock down a) They've knocked down the old church. b) She was knocked down by a car.

to leave out You don't have to say 'The car that I bought'. You can leave 'that' out.

to let in Mrs Reeves is at the door. Can you let her in, please?

to let off I thought the traffic warden was going to give me a parking ticket, but she **let** me **off**.

to look round I thought I heard someone behind me, so I looked round.

to look up a) They all **looked up** when I came into the room. b) **Look up** the new words in a dictionary.

to make up He's very inventive. He **makes up** stories to tell his children.

to pay back I lent him \$50, but he hasn't paid me back yet.

a) I've dropped my pen. Can you **pick** it **up** for me? b) I'll **pick** you **up** at the airport at 8. to pick up to put away Put your books away. Don't leave them on the table.

to put down **Put** that vase **down**. You might drop it.

to put off a) They've **put** the match **off** till next Saturday. b) I didn't buy it. The price **put** me **off**. to put on a) **Put** a coat **on**. It's cold outside. b) He **put** the radio **on** to listen to the news.

to put out The fire brigade came and put the fire out.

to put through

Do you want to speak to Mrs Hill? I'll put you through to her office. (telephone)

to put up a) The hotels are full. I'll **put** you **up** for the night. b) They've **put up** the price of beer again.

to see off When he left for Australia, his whole family came to the airport to see him off.

to set out If we **set out** early, we should get to London by eleven o'clock. The Japanese have **set up** a new computer company in England. to set up to settle down Settle down, everybody, and listen. I want to talk to you.

to show off Jack's always **showing off**. He loves being the centre of attention.

I stayed up very late. I didn't go to bed till 2 a.m. to stay up

to switch off **Switch** the television **off**. I don't want to watch it any more.

to switch on Switch the lights on. I can't see a thing.

to take down I want to paint your bedroom, so you'll have to **take** all your posters **down**. to take off a) The plane **took off** at 11.30. b) It was hot, so I **took** my sweater **off**.

to take over a) I'll take over the driving if you're tired. b) A US company has taken over our firm. to take up a) It's too big. It takes up too much room. b) Take up yoga, if you want to be healthy.

to talk over I can't decide now. I'll have to talk it over with my wife first.

You don't have to tell me now. Why don't you **think** it **over** and tell me tomorrow? to think over

to throw away Don't **throw** that old painting **away**. It might be valuable.

I like this blue sweater. Can I try it on? to try on

to try out I've just bought a new surfboard. I'm going to **try** it **out** this afternoon.

a) I applied for a job, but they turned me down. b) Turn the radio down. It's too loud. to turn down

Don't forget to **turn** the lights **off** before you go to bed. (= switch/put off) to turn off **Turn** the television **on**. There's a good film on. (= switch/put on) to turn on I didn't like my new teacher at first, but she turned out to be very nice. to turn out

Turn the steak over. It's done on that side. to turn over

a) He was late. He turned up at 7 o'clock. b) Turn the TV up. I can't hear it. to turn up

His tooth was painful when the anaesthetic wore off. to wear off He walked across India. He wore out five pairs of shoes! to wear out to wipe out The poisonous gas **wiped out** the whole village. Everyone was killed.

to work out 285 x 46? Give me the calculator. I can't work it out in my head.

Phrasal-prepositional verbs

to be up to a) The job's too difficult for Anna. She isn't up to it. b) I can't help you any more. It's up to you now.

to catch up with I'm not ready yet. Why don't you leave now and I'll catch up with you.

I was standing on the corner when a man came up to me and asked me the way to the to come up to station.

to fall out with Gemma's fallen out with her boyfriend. They don't speak to each other any more.

a) 'Do you get on with your parents?' 'No. We argue a lot.' to get on with b) I can't talk to you for long, because I must get on with my work.

Jack's father left his wife and went off with another woman when Jack was six.

to go off with to keep up with a) Don't walk so fast! I can't keep up with you.

b) Danny always reads the local newspaper. He likes to **keep up with** all the local news.

I'm looking forward to seeing my girlfriend tomorrow. I haven't seen her for three weeks. forward to to look out for Zoe said she might be in town this morning. We must **look out for** her.

to put up with

My neighbours play loud music all night. I can't put up with the noise any more. I'm going to tell the police.

to run out of I ran out of petrol in town this morning, and I had to push the car to a garage.

to look

Adjectives with prepositions

(For adjectives + preposition + the -ing form of a verb, see Unit 50.)

• bad, brilliant, good, hopeless, useless AT

He's very good at chess, but he's useless at ball games.

amazed, surprised, shocked AT/BY

I was really **surprised at** (OR **by**) her reaction. She was furious!

excited, upset, worried ABOUT

I'm really excited about the holiday. She's upset about her mother's death. Don't be worried about me!

• disappointed, happy, pleased ABOUT (a situation) (See WITH.)

He's got a new job. He's very pleased about it, but his wife isn't happy about moving house.

• angry, annoyed, cross ABOUT (something)/WITH (someone)

Someone stole her car; she's very **annoyed about** it. My father's very **angry about** my exam results. Please don't get **angry with** me. She's very **cross with** her brother because he broke her Walkman.

sorry ABOUT/FOR

I'm **sorry about** the broken vase. I'll buy you another one.

I feel sorry for Jenny. She's had a very hard life.

• difficult, easy, essential, important, impossible FOR

It's difficult for people to find jobs. It's impossible for me to come because I haven't got a car.

• famous, late, responsible FOR

'What's Shakespeare famous for?' 'He's famous for the plays he wrote.'

There was a traffic jam, so I was late for work and the children were late for school.

I broke the lamp, but I'm not **responsible for** the broken window.

different FROM (different TO is possible, but it is considered less 'correct')

I can't use this disk because your computer is **different from** mine.

• interested, involved IN

Mark's very interested in photography. Gemma was involved in a serious road accident last week.

• careless, clever, good, kind, nice, sensible, silly, stupid, unreasonable, wrong of

It was **good of** you to come. It was **stupid of** the man to drive at 110 k.p.h. through the village.

• afraid, ashamed, aware, fond, frightened, jealous, proud, scared, tired of

Mrs White's very proud of her children. I'm scared of heights. She's ashamed of what she did.

• full, short, capable of

The room's **full of** people. He's just won a million pounds, so he'll never be **short of** money. Maria lost all her matches this year. She's **capable of** better results.

- keen on She loves volleyball and she's very keen on tennis too.
- cruel, good, kind, nice, rude, unkind TO

The nurses were very **good to** me. Don't be **rude to** your mother!

engaged, married TO

Is Rick married to Anna?' 'No, he's only engaged to her.'

related, similar TO

Your sweater's similar to the one I bought. 'Are you related to him?' 'Yes, he's my cousin.'

bored, fed up WITH

I'm bored with my job and I'm fed up with the people I work with.

disappointed, pleased, satisfied with (a person, a thing)

The players are disappointed with their performance, and the manager isn't pleased with them.

Verbs with prepositions

(For verbs + preposition + the -ing form, see Unit 50.)

agree with Yes, you're right. I **agree with** you. apologise for I **apologised for** my mistake.

apply for He applied for the job, but he didn't get it.
Approve of Her parents don't approve of her boyfriend.
Approve of

believe in Do you believe in ghosts?

belong to 'Whose is this umbrella?' 'It belongs to Jack.'

care about He doesn't care about his family. They aren't important to him.

care for Old Mrs White lives alone. She needs help. She hasn't got anyone to care for her. complain about The music at the party was a bit loud. The neighbours complained about the noise.

complain to

/about My hotel room was dirty. I **complained to** the manager **about** it.

concentrate on I don't like carphones. You can't **concentrate on** your driving if you're using a phone. Consist of the United Kingdom **consists of** England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. They could buy a new car or have an expensive holiday. They **decided on** a new car. Can we go to the beach tomorrow?' I don't know. It **depends on** the weather.'

die of Both my parents **died of** cancer.

dream about I had a strange dream last night. I dreamt about my birth. happen to What's happened to Jenny? I haven't seen her all day.

hear about Have you heard about James? He was in a car accident yesterday.

hear from
She went to Australia a year ago. I haven't heard from her since. She hasn't written.

hear of
Have you heard of a restaurant called 'The Hotpot'?' 'No, I've never heard of it.'

Daniel said he'd contact me today. I'm hoping for a telephone call this morning.

When I died my hair green every held the safety the safety than he distinct

laugh at When I dyed my hair green, everybody **laughed at** me. They thought I looked ridiculous.

listen to Don't turn the radio off. I'm **listening to** the news. live on He isn't very healthy. He **lives on** junk food.

look after I can't come out tonight. I've got to **look after** my baby brother.

look at What are you **looking at**?' Tm **looking at** that man with the dog.' look for What are you **looking for**?' Tm **looking for** my credit card. I can't find it anywhere.'

pay for "I've only got \$5." Don't worry. I'll pay for the tickets."

refer to
The newspaper report **refers to** a bank robbery in London on Tuesday.
rely on
Emily will be here on time. You can **rely on** her. She's never late.
I had an accident in my car. I **ran into** a lorry. (OR I **crashed into** a lorry.)

search for The police are **searching for** two men who robbed a bank.

shout at He **shouts at** me when he gets angry.

shout to I saw Henry in the High Street. I **shouted to** him, but he didn't hear me.

suffer from He **suffers from** high blood pressure.

talk about I met Nick in town. He was **talking about** his new job.

talk to Have you got a minute? I'd like to talk to you.

think about 'You look worried. What are you thinking about?' 'Tm thinking about my exams.'

think of 'What do you **think of** Emma's new boyfriend?' 'He seems quite nice.'

wait for I'll see you at about 8. I'll wait for you outside the restaurant.

write to Don't forget to write to me when you're on holiday.

Note that the following verbs are not followed by a preposition:

approach We were approaching London when the train suddenly stopped.

enter Suddenly a policeman **entered** the room.

expect I don't think the hotel will be full. We don't **expect** many people in October.

phone I'll **phone** you when I get to the airport. reach It was about 7.30 when we **reached** London.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN STEPS is an innovative reference and practice grammar for pre-intermediate and intermediate students.

Its approach is unique. Each unit starts with a presentation passage which sets the grammar in context. The explanations of the grammar are then broken down into manageable Steps. Check questions after each Step reinforce students' understanding and provide positive feedback. At the end of each unit there is a series of contextualised practice exercises to test and consolidate students' knowledge. A full answer key is available separately.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN STEPS Facts

Units with contextualised presentation, step by step explanation and self-check questions with answers	94
Contextualised practice exercises	376
Self check exercises	282
Units which focus on key grammar issues at pre-intermediate/intermediate level: • verb forms • prepositions and link words • the infinitive and –ing form • modals and auxiliaries	19 11 11 6
Revision and reinforcement for Cambridge First Certificate examination students	all units
Useful appendices: • American English – British English • Contractions or short forms • Spelling • Phrasal verbs • Adjectives with prepositions • Verbs with prepositions • Irregular verbs • Glossary of grammatical terms	



